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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

# ATTITUDES OF MEMBERS OF EDUCATIONAL INTEREST GROUPS TOWARDS THE SCHOOL PLACEMENT OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

by

© ROBERT F. BARRON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Attitudes of Members of Educational Interest Groups Towards The School Placement of Exceptional Children" submitted by Robert Frederick John Barron in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Date April 20, 1979

# ABSTRACT

There is considerable discussion in the area of special education as to what is the most desirable form of school placement for exceptional children. Federal Law 94-142, which was passed in the United States in 1975, made compulsory the school placement of exceptional children there in the least restrictive environment. Some significant developments have occurred in Alberta too.

This study was concerned with the attitudes of members of educational interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children in Alberta. The knowledge members of interest groups showed of special education, and the perceived influence of each group over government policy making in this field, were also researched.

The interest groups included in the study were the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, a University Faculty of Education, a parent/community group, and a group of private schools for exceptional children. The total sample size for the study was 278, the largest group being 69 special education teacher members of the Alberta Teachers' Association and the smallest group being 23 members of the Alberta School Trustees' Association.

Two questionnaires were developed for use in the study. One of these, the Organization/Agency Information Schedule, provided information about the structure of each interest group. The type of questions asked was based upon a typology of interest groups developed by Pross. It

included such variables as the number of members, size of professional staff, types of policies, and methods by which influence was exerted upon the government. The second questionnaire was named the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children. Based upon earlier work by Haring and Others, this questionnaire sought to obtain information for each interest group about attitudes to school placement, knowledge of special education concepts, and perceived influence over public policy making.

Results indicated that the members of the University Faculty of Education and members of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents were most integrative in their attitudes towards the school placement of exceptional children, while special education teachers in the public school systems and teachers in private schools for exceptional children were least in favor of such placements.

Analysis of the results indicated that exceptional children could be divided into four groups for school placements: (a) children with minor exceptionalities that could be provided for in regular classes with some additional services; (b) children with minor exceptionalities who would benefit from some integration with regular classes but who basically required a special class placement; (c) children with forms of exceptionality that produced socially disturbing or disruptive behavior and who should be placed in separate special classes in regular schools; and (d) children with exceptionalities severe enough to require placement in segregated special schools, usually on the same site as a regular school.

There was considerable disagreement as to the distribution of mildly exceptional children between categories (a) and (b) above, but members of all groups agreed that the trainable mentally retarded,

severely physically handicapped, blind, deaf, and multiply handicapped children should be segregated into special campus-type schools rather than integrated into regular schools.

Knowledge about special education was found to be significantly correlated to school placement attitudes--the higher the members of a group were rated on knowledge of special education, the more they favored integrated placements for exceptional children.

Of the groups included in the study, the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association were found to be the most influential over educational policy making. It was also found that the influence level of the interest groups was issue-specific as far as it applied to the topic under investigation.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted to a large number of people for their very real assistance in the completion of this thesis, and am very pleased to be able to pay tribute to them here.

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Permission to carry out the research was willingly granted by officials of the Edmonton Public School Board, the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, the Dean of the Faculty of Education

at the University of Alberta and the respective chairpersons of the Departments of Educational Administration, Educational Psychology, and Elementary Education at that university. Officials of the Edmonton and Alberta Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, and the principals of a number of private schools for exceptional children in the province, also cooperated in the study. These people willingly gave their time for interviews and correspondence.

Members of the organizations who participated in the study made the research possible, and I am deeply grateful to them for this. Many of them also offered encouragement which at times was surely needed and appreciated. Miss Elizabeth Stone typed much of the manuscript in a highly competent manner, while Miss Dianne Hayes also contributed her skills in this field.

The strains of moving half-way around the world upon a wife and five children are very real indeed. The effect of this period of study upon them has been tremendous, although problems were considerably lessened by the wonderful friendship shown us by fellow-students and co-workers. Throughout the whole experience, my family made everything worthwhile and I thank them sincerely for their sacrifices.

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Robert F. Barron.

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# CHAPTER 1

# THE PROBLEM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

## INTRODUCTION

This study comprised an investigation of the attitudes of members of groups interested in public policy making in the field of special education towards the school placement of exceptional children in the province of Alberta. The knowledge members of interest groups showed of special education, and the perceived influence of each group over government policy making in this field, were also researched.

## BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Education, generally, is a government-controlled activity, and the policies under which it operates are government or public policies. The level of government determining these policies varies from country to country, with some countries determining policy at the federal level while others do so at the provincial or even the local level.

In Canada, under the provisions of the British North America Act of 1867, education is a provincial responsibility. There is no national office or department of education (Byrne, 1976:1-27; Bergen, 1976:28-39) and there is considerable discussion concerning the degree of control that the federal government is able to exercise over educational policy. However, it is possible to identify numerous policies in education such as those concerning bilingualism and technical and vocational training programs that have developed in the provinces largely because of federal financial support. A noticeable exception to this is in the area of special education.

The United States, particularly since the 1958 National Defence Act and the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, has had a more direct federal government involvement in educational policy making through the federal Office of Education; this is indicated also by the large amount of federal funds provided for education--$3.16 billion planned under Public Law 94-142 in 1982 (Hardy, 1977:13). Grants are often provided for specific purposes and are conditional on certain requirements being satisfied. The federal government in Australia, through the Schools Commission (Report of the Schools Commission, 1976-1978), is also able to exercise some control over educational policies in the states by providing special-purpose grants, while in several European countries (e.g. France) a more direct form of control is exercised by federal authorities because of the centralized administrative structures.

Regardless of the level of government involved, policies are made and implemented to cover all aspects of education. Ratsoy (1976:1) stated that "Policy making is aimed at achieving certainty in organizations. It attempts to set up machinery which will ensure particular kinds of behavior and actions, and not others." Thus, policies are developed so that organizations can control--or at least prescribe--the limits of the behavior of their members. In schools, teachers and administrators know what to do because they can follow policy guides and procedures, often set by the provincial government. In many circumstances, the implementation of policies will necessitate changes in the behavior of organization members; decisions to adopt new policies are therefore similar to decisions to adopt innovations in organizations.

Rogers and Shoemaker (1971:315) suggested that one method of introducing innovations in organizations is through authority-type decisions, in which the decision to adopt the innovation (or policy) is made at one level in the hierarchy while organization members at another level would have to implement it. They stated:

> Authority-Innovation decisions are forced upon an individual by someone in a superordinate power position. The individual (or any other adoptive unit) is ordered by someone in a higher authority position to adopt or reject an innovation.

This is often the situation in educational policy making. Legislators decide to introduce certain educational policies, and educators are required to implement them in their schools.

Policy makers adopt new policies for a variety of reasons, but frequently as a response to the demands of interest groups operating within or upon the political system. Key (1964:142-143) stated that:

> A working conception of the political system must make a place for organized interest groups: they not only seek to exert influence, they are a part of the political system--elements quite as integral to the system as are political parties.

Dye (1975:6) stated that public policies are developed through interaction between forces operating in the political system and its environment. Van Loon and Whittington (1976:8) stated that this interaction takes place because of "demands," or "firmly stated requests by interested parties for allocative outputs which will be to their advantage." Such demands of interest groups were regarded by Easton (1965:48) as being central to the total issue of policy making, because "without them there would literally be no occasion to undertake the making of binding decisions for society."

The attitudes of interest groups, and the demands that they make, are of particular concern to those who wish to study the formation or development of public policy on any particular topic. This study concentrated on the attitudes of relevant interest group members to the school placement of exceptional children. These attitudes could result in demands being made upon the political system for changes to be introduced in present policy toward the placement of exceptional children.

## The School Placement of Exceptional Children

One aspect of educational practice that has aroused considerable debate recently has been the means by which educational services are delivered to the exceptional children who are in need of some form of special provision (Birch, 1974; Chaffin, 1974; Kolstoe, 1972). Traditionally, these services have been provided to a small number of exceptional children through the establishment of special institutions differentiated according to the type of child served. As Gearheart and Weishahn (1976:15) stated: "Historically . . . they . . . have been eliminated, ignored, made to work as indentured servants, and institutionalized, in that approximate order."

Recently, however, a number of pressures have resulted in a marked reaction against segregated facilities. These pressures have been discussed by numerous writers (Dunn, 1968; Chaffin, 1974; Kaufman et al. 1975; Watson, 1975; Keogh and Levitt, 1976). They include a growing awareness of the lack of empirical support for the effectiveness of segregated facilities at increasing the cognitive and social development of exceptional children, the increased attention being given to the needs of minority groups of all kinds including the exceptional, the great increase in parental and interest group pressure applied in the United States, and the resultant court actions and government legislation that have ruled against the segregation of children into special programs.

The result of these factors has frequently been pressure for the adoption of policies which emphasize the integration of exceptional children into regular programs wherever possible. This has been referred to, usually with minor differences of interpretation, as mainstreaming (Kaufman et al., 1975), integration (Gearheart and Weishahn, 1976), or normalization (Wolfensberger, 1972). In the United States, mainstreaming has become an essential aspect of educational policy through the passing of Public Law 94-142 in 1975; part of this law (C.E.C., 1976:14) stated:

> Procedures must ensure, to the maximum extent appropriate, that handicapped children are educated with children who are not handicapped, and that separate classes, separate schooling, or other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in the regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily.

A similar law had earlier been passed in Tennessee (1972).

In Canada, the situation had been somewhat different. Hardy (1977:13) stated:

> It is almost inconceivable that up until less than ten years ago severely retarded children were denied a public education, and in many parts of Canada other types of severely and multiply handicapped children are still today refused entry to the public school system. What is amazing is that parents did not claim the

right to education for their children much sooner.

In actual practice, the implementation of the policy of integrating exceptional children into regular classes varied considerably, with services ranging on a continuum from fully segregated to fully integrated models. As Connor (1976:188) stated:

> What many administrators are discovering about mainstreaming is that it is not a simple matter of "either mainstreaming _or_ special schools or classes," but that the concept includes both of these and more.

The complexity of the concept was also discussed by Guerin and Szatlosky (1974:173) who stated:

> Rather than a single, simple model [of mainstreaming] there are major program differences in such areas as who is to be integrated, how long they are in the regular classroom, what educational system is involved, what teaching strategies are used, what support systems are employed.

Birch (1974:18) suggested that there was an essential difference between a program that emphasized integration and one that emphasized segregation. When integration was emphasized, an exceptional child moved from his normal placement in a regular class to some form of special help for part of the day. When segregation was emphasized, the child was placed in a special class and moved from there to a regular class for a small part of his program.

As pointed out earlier, mainstreaming has been made an integral part of federal educational policy in the United States, and is being encouraged through the conditions placed upon receiving federal financial assistance. Legislation of this kind has not been considered in Alberta, nor has making the provision of special education mandatory for exceptional children such as has been legislated in the provinces of Saskatchewan and Nova Scotia. (Hardy, 1977:13)

As Perkins (1974:10) stated:

> Only two out of ten provinces have mandatory legislation--Saskatchewan and Nova Scotia. While Alberta provides special education services, they are based on permissive legislation with no guarantee of funds.

The only provisions in The School Act of 1970 which apply to special education as such concern compulsory attendance at school and the conditions which allow school boards to exempt children from attendance if they cannot be accommodated within the system,

> . . . Until such time as the Board, with the approval of the parent, can arrange the needed special education through attendance in a special class or by entering the child in a special school, or in any other suitable manner. (Section 134(2), The School Act, 1970)

Yet, a province-wide system of providing special education facilities is in operation, details of which are provided in Chapter 3 of this study. The facilities provided are dependent to some extent upon decisions made by school trustees operating at the school district level, but are also dependent upon financial policies established at the provincial level. These provincially determined policies set guidelines for local boards to follow if they wish to receive provincial financial assistance in terms of Special Education Teaching Position grants. Variations do at present occur, from district to district, but mainly in the range of services provided rather than in their type, although some research is at present under way to investigate the possible implementation of new approaches in some areas (e.g. the Calgary Board of Education, 1977).

Thus, although policies can be established at the local level for the school placement of exceptional children, the main centre of policy making in this field is at the provincial level. This occurs mainly because of the province-wide implications of financial policy and the lack of mandatory legislation. As well, authority is given to the Minister of Education, in terms of the Department of Education Act, to:

> . . . Make regulations . . .
> (e) for the establishment, operation, administration and management of schools, institutes or facilities for the education and training ofpersons with special education needs. (Section 7(1), The Department of Education Act)

The school placement policy adopted for exceptional children is therefore an important aspect of educational policy in special education. Interest group pressure in the United States has led to public policy requiring mainstreamed facilities; in Alberta, the attitudes of various interest group members could serve as a guide to future government policy making in this important field.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of members of major interest groups in the field of special education towards the school placement of exceptional children in the Province of Alberta.

## SUB-PROBLEMS

The following sub-problems formed part of the study:

### Sub-Problem 1

This sub-problem was concerned with the determination of the groups to be included in the study, and their structure:

1.1 What major groups held interests in the development of new policies in special education in Alberta ?

1.2 To what extent was each of these groups institutionalized in its structure ?

Sub-problem 2

This sub-problem was concerned with an investigation into the attitudes of individual group members towards certain forms of school placement for exceptional children:

2.1 What overall attitudes were expressed by members of each interest group towards the school placement of exceptional children ?

2.2 What attitudes were expressed by members of each interest group towards the school placement of specific types of exceptional children ?

2.3 What similarities or differences existed between the attitudes expressed by members of each interest group towards the school placement of specific types of exceptional children ?

Sub-problem 3

In this sub-problem, an investigation was made into the level of knowledge shown by group members of concepts in special education and the relationship between this and their attitudes towards school placements:

3.1 To what extent were members of each group knowledgeable about selected concepts relating to the field of special education ?

3.2 What relationships existed, if any, between the knowledge shown by group members and their attitudes to school placement ?

Sub-problem 4

This sub-problem concerned the influence that each of the groups was perceived to possess over public policy making:

4.1 How influential was each group perceived by respondents to be with regard to policy making in the general area of education ?

4.2 How influential was each group perceived by respondents to be with regard to policy making concerning the school placement of exceptional children ?

4.3 What relationship existed between the knowledge shown by each group and the group's perceived influence in the field of special education ?

4.4 What relationship existed between the degree of institutionalization of interest groups and their perceived influence on public policy making ?

## SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A major policy issue in special education is related to the school placement of exceptional children. Educators of exceptional children and researchers in this field are not agreed upon the most desirable form of placement; see, for example, Reynolds and Birch, 1977; Christoplos and Renz, 1969; Beery, 1973; Smith and Arkans, 1974. As Connor (1976:188) stated: "Administrators should know that the field of special education is not united on the value of mainstreaming."

Yet, the type of school placement used for exceptional children has far-reaching implications in the field of educational administration, implications not restricted to the area of special education. For example, a policy that emphasized the integration of exceptional children into regular classes would affect not only the exceptional but the normal child as well; it would involve not only special education teachers but regular classroom teachers as well; and it would have some major implications for the administration of schools and school systems too.

If, as Mazzoni and Campbell (1976:4) claimed, "Public policies are the outgrowth of an influence process in which competing actors [interest groups] seek to realize decision benefits," it is important to discover what interest groups are involved, what attitudes they hold, and how much influence they have in any particular policy area. If these things are known, then some possibilities exist for the prediction of future policy making in that area.

Much of the controversy over the integration of exceptional children into regular classes is at present centred in the United States. However, if segregation is disadvantageous to children in United States schools it is probably also disadvantageous to Canadian children. There is some evidence to suggest that pressures are being applied in the Canadian society to improve special education facilities and to move more towards an integrated delivery model.

The O.E.C.D. Report (1976:36) was quite critical of the overall provision made for special education in Canada, stating that "The problem of providing full educational opportunities to *handicapped children* is a task that has, with a few honourable exceptions, been grievously neglected in Canada." The report *One Million Children* (CELDIC, 1970:146) strongly recommended the adoption of integrated programs in special education, suggesting:

> That because of the negative effects of separate special educational facilities, educational authorities minimize the isolation of children with emotional and learning disorders, and plan programs for them that as far as possible retain children within the regular school curricula and activities.

Foxcroft (1977:4), when describing the setting up of a new program for trainable mentally retarded children in Barrie, Ontario, wrote that the major problem that had to be faced was whether the schools for these children should be integrated or segregated. This statement would serve as an indication that the question is a significant one in Canada as well as elsewhere. The decision, Foxcroft stated, was one that "Unanimously recommended that integrative facilities be provided."

Canadian educators in special education are aware of the problem, and increasingly pressure is being applied for delivery systems to be developed which will provide for the needs of exceptional children in the least restrictive environment. As Hardy (1977:14) stated:

> Things are often done in particular ways for no other reason than that they have always been done that way. One of the challenges to special education in Canada is the production and testing of workable and imaginative delivery systems.

## LIMITATIONS

The study was affected by a number of limitations inherent in its design; these included:

1. Data gathering was carried out using questionnaires. Problems in the use of these instruments, and particularly in the non-return of questionnaires sent out, are discussed in Chapter 4 of this study.

2. A second limitation of the study was that, in attempting to obtain an indication of the amount of knowledge of special education possessed by respondents, no allowance could be made for responses that were only accurate "guesses." Respondents were asked not to guess, but it was not possible to tell if this instruction had been observed.

3. The study used only a small sample of each group because of the large number of groups involved. This limited the generalizability of the findings.

4. The questionnaire assumed some knowledge, attitudes and/or opinions of respondents towards the topic under investigation. It may well be that many people did not have developed attitudes towards a number of the items included, nor any knowledge of the problems of many of the children described in the schedule. This would limit the validity of their responses.

## DELIMITATIONS

The study was delimited to a survey of members of selected major interest groups in the province of Alberta. Only groups involved in or related to the field of education on a continuing basis were considered for inclusion, although other groups could possibly become involved over specific issues at specific times.

The investigation was delimited to the province of Alberta. Because the attitudes of interest group members could change from place to place, and particularly if demographic and/or economic factors changed, the degree to which results can be generalized to other areas is limited.

Also, the study was delimited to policy making at the provincial government level, as evidence quoted in Chapter 2 of the study suggests that this is the main centre of policy making in this field. Some policy making in education does occur at other levels of government also, but this was not considered in this study.

The study looked at the attitudes of group members at one particular time, but did not take into account the ways in which the expressed attitudes of members of one group could affect those of members of other groups. Interaction between groups was not considered.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

### Special Education

Special education is education designed to meet the needs of exceptional children. As defined by Gearheart and Weishahn (1976:11), it is:

> A sub-system of the total educational system, responsible for the joint supervision of specialized adapted programs and services (or for assisting others to provide such services) for exceptional children and youth.

### Exceptional Children

This term was used to refer to all children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be met effectively. This followed the definition given by Dunn (1973:7) which stated:

> An exceptional pupil is so labelled for that segment of his school career (1) when his deviating physical or behavioral characteristics are of such a nature as to manifest a significant learning asset or disability for special education purposes; and therefore (2) when, through trial provisions it has been determined that he can make greater all-round adjustment and scholastic progress with direct or indirect special education services than he could with only a typical regular school program.

The gifted are included as well as the handicapped.

### Handicapped Children

This is a more restrictive term than the one above, and was rarely used in this study; when it was used, it referred to children who suffered from a mental or physical impairment that resulted in their performance being significantly less than normal. It does not include the gifted.

Interest Group

As defined by Almond and Powell (1966:75), an interest group is "A group of individuals who are linked by particular bonds of concern or advantage, and who have some awareness of these bonds."

Attitude

An attitude was defined by Thurstone (1959:216) as: "The sum total of a man's inclinations, and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and convictions about any specific topic."

Influence

This was defined by Dahl (1976:30) as:

> A relation among actors or groups such that the wants, desires, preferences, or intentions of one or more actors affect the actions, or predispositions to act, of one or more other actors.

Mainstreaming

The definition given by Kaufman et al. (1975:4) was utilized in this study.

> Mainstreaming refers to the temporal, instructional, and social integration of eligible exceptional children with normal peers based on an ongoing, individually determined, educational planning and programming process and requires clarification of responsibility among regular and special education administrative, instructional and supportive personnel.

At certain places in the study, the term "integration" was used to refer to the same concept as mainstreaming.

Integrated School or Class

An integrated school or class was defined as one in which an exceptional child was placed with his normal or non-exceptional peers in a regular class, receiving additional instruction or assistance in required areas. A child was regarded as being placed in an integrated class if he spent more than half of each school day in that class.

### Semi-Integrated School

A semi-integrated school was defined as one in which an exceptional child was placed in a special class within a regular school, and was integrated with normal children in the playground and in such subject areas as art, music, social studies, or physical education for less than half of the school day.

### Campus School

A campus school was defined as one built on the same site as another school, one being for normal children and one being for exceptional children; although each school was administered separately, there were common playing fields and facilities where a degree of informal mixing could occur.

### Segregated School

A segregated school is one where exceptional children are completely segregated from their normal peers through placement in a school built on a separate site especially to meet the needs of exceptional children. It can include institutions of a residential nature as well as day schools.

## ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 gives a general introduction to the study by providing the necessary background information. Following this, the problem is stated and the sub-problems developed from this. The significance of the problem is discussed, key terms are defined, and the limitations and delimitations of the study established.

Chapter 2 provides a review of relevant literature in the main areas of the study. This is organized into four main sections: (1) the legislative function in Canada; (2) public policy making; (3) the role of interest groups in Canadian policy making; and (4) the debate over the school placement of exceptional children. The conceptual framework is then developed.

Chapter 3 provides a review of the organization of special education in Alberta at the present time, and includes a description of the means by which special education facilities are financed.

Chapter 4 contains a detailed description of the methodology used in the study. The sample used, the development of the instruments, methods by which data were collected and details of statistical treatments used are provided in this section.

Chapter 5 is a discussion of the selection of the groups for the study, giving details of the structure and policies for each of these groups. It also gives information concerning other responses obtained from the Organization/Agency Information Schedule.

Chapter 6 provides details of the results obtained in the study from the use of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children. These are arranged so as to describe separately the attitudes of members of each group to school placement, their knowledge of selected concepts in special education, and the amount of influence each group was perceived to have.

Chapter 7 analyzes the results obtained on Part II of the questionnaire and outlines the attitudes towards the school placement of exceptional children shown by members of each group.

Chapter 8 examines the implications of these findings for public policy making in Alberta, both in the specific area of special education and in the more general area of policy making itself. It also outlines the main conclusions of the study and suggests areas for future research.

# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter provides a review of relevant literature on four issues: the legislative function in Canada, public policy making, the role of interest groups in Canadian public policy making, and the debate over the school placement of exceptional children. The conceptual framework which is developed from this literature is then discussed.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### The Legislative Function in Canada

In Canada, two levels of government function as legislative bodies, forming a federal system of government. According to Engelmann and Schwartz (1967:124-125), the Canadian system meets the three criteria of a federal system as enumerated by Riker:

> (1) Two levels of government rule the same land and people; (2) each level has at least one area of action in which it is autonomous; and (3) there is some guarantee . . . of the autonomy of each government in its own sphere.

Van Loon and Whittington (1976:143) referred to this arrangement as the principle of "divided sovereignty" because the legislative function was divided between the federal parliament and the provincial legislature. The British North America Act of 1867 and subsequent Acts of a similar nature established the areas of responsibility for each level of government, giving responsibility for providing educational services and making educational policies to the provincial governments. (Section 93 of the BNA Act)

This provincial right to control education is, to some extent at least, limited by the over-riding power of the federal government to disallow legislation passed by a provincial government--although this rarely occurs--and by other powers set out in Section 93 of the BNA Act (Hodgson, 1976:44).

As well, a third level of government, the local level, also functions in Canada. However, in education at least, local administrative units or school boards are "Creatures of the provincial legislature and do not operate independently from the provincial department of education." (Bergen, 1976:28) This point was also emphasized by Hodgson (1976:45) who stated:

> The general Canadian pattern, then, is that of provincial control of schooling. School boards are elected or appointed to administer a number of school matters locally, but there is no doubt that it is the provinces that are in control.

The O.E.C.D. Report on Education in Canada (1976:69) stated, too:

> The predominance of power in policy making (and in many cases in administration) lies with the Ministries of Education--putting aside all protestations by Ministry Officials that this is not so.

Although the provinces have control over education, there is ample evidence to show that the federal government is able, indirectly at least, to influence general educational policy. This is usually done through "back-door" methods such as the classification of aid as being for matters other than education; training, manpower or agriculture are examples of this. Hodgson (1976:49) stated:

> While provincial politicians stoutly maintain that the provinces control education and that the federal government is not

> to interfere, the provinces gladly accept federal aid to education, and even federal "interference" in education--as long as the interference can be suitably masked in some way.

Probably the most significant example of federal intervention in education was the Technical and Vocational Training Act (TVTA) of 1961 which provided over two billion dollars to technical education in the provinces. This certainly created a sense of priority in the provinces for the provision of technical and vocational education, and hence was indicative of federal policy making in the education field. A present-day example is the financial incentive given to bilingual language courses in schools, which are subsidized by the federal government.

As well, the federal government is directly involved in providing full educational services in the Yukon and North West Territories, to native Indian and Eskimo people, and to families of members of the defence forces, although services for defence personnel increasingly are being "bought" from the provinces.

Notwithstanding the above, emphasis on educational policy making in this study is placed at the provincial level, for it is at that level that constitutional authority for education is vested. Even more relevant for the purposes of this study is the fact that, unlike its United States counterpart, the Canadian government does not provide federal funds to encourage the development of special education programs. As Hardy (1977:13) stated: "In Canada, there is no national governmental effort on behalf of the handicapped." This is left to the provinces.

Control of the government, according to political writers (Hodgson, 1976:42; Smith, 1973:348; Van Loon and Whittington, 1976:337;

Anderson, 1975:118) rests firmly with the cabinet, and not with the rank-and-file members of the parliament. Cabinet is made up of members of the majority party selected by the Premier as Cabinet Ministers. The Minister of Education is a member of that Cabinet. Although speaking of the federal jurisdiction, Van Loon and Whittington (1976:337) stated:

> The cabinet is the "core" institution for priority determination. By this we mean that while no one part of the political system possesses a monopoly over the determination of priorities, where new policies are concerned, the cabinet is by far the most important institution involved.

Hockin (1973:362) did point out that the total parliament or legislature is the important body from a legal point of view, stating that "Nothing becomes law under federal jurisdiction unless Parliament passes it, and no executive can last in office without the support of the majority of the House." But he went on to emphasize that this was not a very useful concept in understanding the day-to-day operation of parliamentary government; Smith (1973:348) called it "the mythology of parliamentary government."

The location of political power in the political system of Canada and its provinces is an important determinant of the tactics of interest groups; this topic receives further discussion later in the study.

## Public Policy Making

### Policy Making

Organizations are established to achieve a "desired state of affairs" (Etzioni, 1964:6); the means by which the behavior of organization members is coordinated, controlled and directed toward the attainment of that desired state of affairs is through the establishment of policy. As Ratsoy (1976:1) stated: "Policy making is aimed at achieving certainty in organizations. It attempts to set up machinery which will ensure particular kinds of behavior and actions, and not others."

Policy making was defined by Anderson (1975:3) as "A purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern." Johnson (1975:40) defined policy as "broadly speaking, a body of principle to guide action."

Policy tells people what to do, sometimes in specific terms, but more frequently it sets the limits within which alternative courses of action or behavior may be selected by individual members of an organization; it is future-directed in that it is intended to guide future behavior more than account for past actions--although some forms of policy analysis may do this--and it is general rather than specific in that it is developed to cope with situations that will recur frequently rather than for one unique situation. (Ramsey, 1975:8)

Policy making, as does most administrative behavior, involves decision making, and frequently disagreement arises as to what is policy making and what is decision making. Johnson (1975:39-40) pointed out what he believed were the essential differences between the two terms:

> "Decision" entails a primary concern with present action and the data and methodologies requisite for it. Decision making presumes an intent and a direction, but focuses principally upon the process of bringing it about under existing conditions . . .
>
> Policy making is a course of action adopted by some authoritative body within an institutional setting . . . it is presumed to entail not the terminating behavioral characteristic we call "decisiveness", but the continuous quality of "discernment", "penetration", and "deliberation".

Thus, Johnson claimed that decision making is a narrow, single selection of choices relating to immediate action, while policy making is a much broader concept related to the development of guidelines for behavior over a continuing time span. He implied that decision making is contained within, and directed by, policy making.

A somewhat opposing view was adopted by Dror (1968:13), who suggested that policy making is a form of decision making, that decision making is the broad term while policy making is a particular type of decision making. He went on to state, however, that "Public policymaking is an aggregative form of decision making and differs in important respects from the discrete decisions that most decision-making literature deals with." In other words, Dror pointed out that there are different kinds of decision making, some of which relate to the discrete, non-recurring type of everyday matters that occur constantly in the work of an administrator, and others that are related in sum to the formulation of policies in these areas. He (1968:13) suggested that:

> Failure to discriminate among various kinds of decision-making may be an important reason why decision-making theory has contributed relatively little to the study of policymaking, planning, and similar aggregative and complex decision-making processes.

This distinction between policy making and decision making can be likened to a differentiation drawn by Simon (1957:54) between "policy questions" and "administrative questions." Quoting Goodnow from as early as 1900, he stated:

> These two functions of government may for purposes of convenience be designated respectively as Politics and Administration. Politics has to do with policies or expression of the state will. Administration has to do with the execution of these policies.

Similar distinctions were noted by Maertz (1966:5) and Myhre (1961:40). Aucoin (1971:23) related the type of decision to the level within the organizational hierarchy at which the decision was made, with the higher levels being more concerned with policy making.

Thus, policy making involves the development of a set of guidelines for future behavior and decision making. As stated earlier, all organizations develop policies; when governments do so, the outcomes are called public policies.

## Public Policy Making

Public policy, according to Dye (1975:1), is "Whatever governments choose to do or not to do." Dror (1968:12) was more explicit:

> Public policymaking is a very complex, dynamic process whose various components make different contributions to it. It decides major guidelines for action directed at the future, mainly by governmental organs. These guidelines (policies) formally aim at achieving what is in the public interest by the best possible means.

As Dye (1975:2) pointed out, public policies may deal with a wide range of areas such as national defence, education, social welfare and public protection. He stated (1975:3) that in the study of policy making, emphasis had now shifted from an analysis of the institutions of government in which policies were formulated to the development of models which were able to describe and explain the causes and consequences of governmental activity. A number of these models were listed by Dye (1975:17) and are discussed briefly below. Although they explain the policy making activities of governments in slightly different ways, each approach is not necessarily discrete in its separation from each of the others. For example, Stringham

(1974:34) incorporated most of them into the general systems theory approach to public policy making. But each model does provide a somewhat different explanation for policy development, and they are discussed separately for that reason.

(i) Institutionalism

The traditional approach to the study of public policy making some years ago centred around the study of the actual institutions involved in government such as the legislature, the cabinet, and the bureaucracy. (Anderson, 1975:25) Its approach concentrated on describing the formal and legal aspects of governmental institutions, "their formal organization, legal powers, procedural rules, and functions or activities." (Anderson, 1975:23-24)

(ii) Group Theory

The Group Theory approach to studying public policy making was largely the result of the work by Truman (1961); it suggests that the environment in which a government operates is composed of a great number of groups, some large and some small, some highly influential and others less so. Each of these groups has goals or objectives which it is striving to achieve for its members. In such an environment, the role of the government becomes:

> To manage group conflict by (1) establishing rules of the game in the group struggle, (2) arranging compromises and balancing interests, (3) enacting compromises in the form of public policy, and (4) enforcing these compromises. (Dye, 1975:21)

The compromises or public policies determined by the government reflect the equilibrium point at which the demands of the groups are balanced. This is determined by the relative influence of groups as measured by the number of members, their resources and organizational strength, the level of their internal cohesion and their access to government decision makers. (Dye, 1975:22)

Latham (1956:239) took a similar approach to policy making in that he also saw it as the equilibrium point in the group struggle. He also suggested that this equilibrium was dynamic, changing constantly as the group struggle continued. He stated:

> What may be called public policy is actually the equilibrium reached in the group struggle at any given moment, and it represents a balance which the contending factions or groups continually strive to tip in their favor . . . The legislature referees the struggle, ratifies the victories of the successful coalition, and records the terms of the surrenders, compromises and conquests in the form of statutes.

The group approach to public policy making is an important one in the study of the actions of interest groups in attempting to influence public policy. For the purposes of this study, however, it is claimed that the group concept can be better accounted for using the systems model which is discussed later.

### (iii) Elite Theory

Elite Theory suggests that the majority of public policy is developed according to the demands of a very small, elitist group within a society. Lasswell (1950:235), for example, viewed man in society as belonging either to this elite or to the rest of society--the elite or the masses. As Anderson (1975:21) suggested:

> The essential argument of elite theory is that it is not the people or the "masses" who determine public policy through their demands and action; rather, public policy is decided by a ruling elite and carried into effect by public officials and agencies.

Hage and Dewar (1973:281) also pointed out that it was much more accurate to conceive of a small group of powerful figures, an elite, as controlling organizations than to think of one person as being in control. They stated:

> The argument for the primacy of elite values maintains that organizations are seldom led by one person, however forceful and dynamic a person he may be. Usually there is some group, an elite, and it is their values that set organizational policy, that is, in decentralized power structures, an inner circle develops.

### (iv) Rationalism

The rationalistic model of public policy making is largely a theoretical one in the sense that it would be extremely difficult to implement; it is more an ideal to be aimed for in the hope that in the process, an "acceptable" level of rationality may be attained. As Dror (1968:132) stated:

> With a few exceptions (some very important), pure-rationality is in fact impossible because constructing complete, weighted inventories of values and resources, identifying all alternatives, making valid predictions of the costs and benefits of all alternatives--these tasks are far beyond our knowledge and capacity.

The rational model implies that policies are made only after an exhaustive search for all relevant information, the consideration of all possible alternatives and their consequences, and the selection of the "only" correct alternative in the light of the weights assigned to each of these alternatives. Dye (1975:27) suggested that for rational policy making to occur, policy makers must:

> (1) Know all the society's value preferences and their relative weights; (2) know all the policy alternatives available; (3) know all the consequences of each policy available; (4) calculate the ratio of achieved to sacrificed societal values for each policy alternative; (5) select the most efficient policy alternative.

The difficulties in carrying out such a process successfully are obvious. As a result, certain alternative models have been developed to reduce the need for the total level of knowledge required by the rational model. One of these is the Economically-Rational model, suggested by Dror (1968:141) as being one in which "the idea is to be only as rational as is economical."

A second modification is the disjointed incrementalism model developed by Lindblom, which is discussed next.

(v) Incrementalism

The incremental approach to policy making was described by Doern and Aucoin (1971:13) as probably the most influential of the policy making models. It was developed by Lindblom (1969:79-88) as "The Science of Muddling Through." Incrementalism suggests that new public policies are developed by initiating only minor changes to existing policies, that changes are introduced only a little at a time. Thus, incrementalism is a very conservative concept of policy making whose usefulness is limited by the fact that it is unable to account for the occasions when radically new policies are introduced without the necessity for dramatic events such as revolutions.

Dror (1968:144) suggested that incrementalism is really a special version of the economically-rational model, and accepted that "It describes actual decision-making behavior much better than either the pure-rational or the usual form of the economically-rational model." Anderson (1975:12) also spoke favorably of this approach in describing the real world of public policy making.

Incrementalism is used as a method of policy making for a number of reasons: (1) shortages of time, other resources, and limits to knowledge prevent the attainment of rationality in its pure form, so with less of these resources, the policy maker attempts to make fewer changes at any one time; (2) it is safer politically because minor changes will probably be accepted by a much larger percentage of the population than would dramatic changes; and (3) there is usually the question of heavy "sunk-costs"--the political and economic investment in present policies--that would suggest it is more feasible to modify present policies than it is to abandon them for completely new ones. Incrementalism seems, however, to be less of a policy development model than it is an explanation of the degree of change that occurs in existing policies, and can thus be related to, or used in conjunction with, several of the other models discussed.

### (vi) Game Theory

The game theory model of policy making seems to be somewhat the opposite to the rational model; in fact, Dror (1968:149) called it the "extra-rational" model. Like incrementalism, it seems to provide an explanation of policy making behavior that is commonly associated with governments and political behavior. It implies that on occasions policy will be determined as a result of the interaction between two or more actors, and that the behavior of one will be dependent upon the behavior of the other. It suggests that there is no "independently best" (Dye, 1975:33) course of action, so each person will be influenced by what the other does first, or what he thinks the other will do first. Policy making is therefore explained not in terms of what is right, but by taking account of the possible reactions of other people whom the policy may affect.

### (vii) Systems Theory

Systems theory suggests that public policy is developed in response to forces acting upon the policy making body from the environment in which it operates. The system is made up of a variety of inputs, which are processed and transformed into outputs. Feedback is also an important aspect of the systems model.

Easton (1965:21) defined a political system as being "Those interactions through which values are authoritatively allocated for a society." He stated that a political system has three components: the environment, which provides the inputs in the form of demands, the political body which processes the inputs, and decisions or policies which are the outputs of the system. Easton's model of a political system is shown in Figure 1.

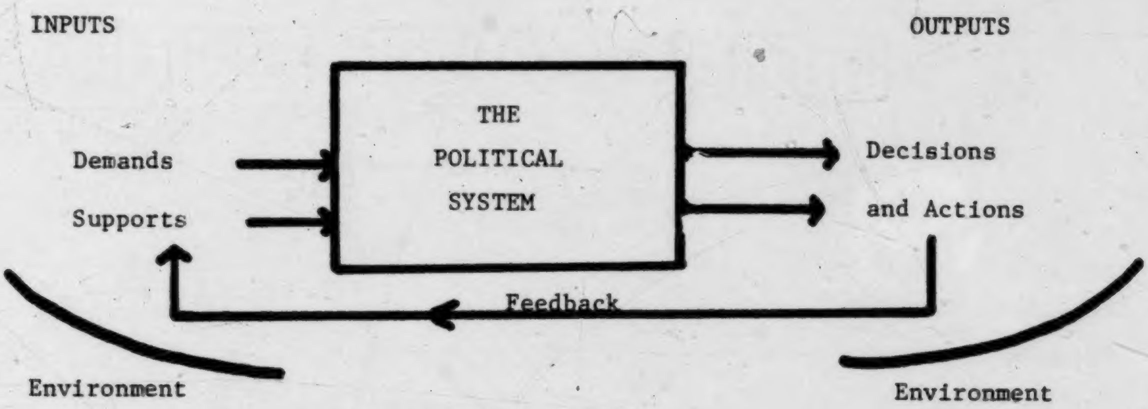

INPUTS
OUTPUTS
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM
Demands
Supports
Decisions and Actions
Feedback
Environment
Environment

Figure 1

The Systems Model (Easton, 1965)

Mazzoni and Campbell (1976:2-3) defined a political systems model as one that "views policy making as an interactive process through which inputs, including demands for change, are converted into outputs, including authoritative decisions." Demands were defined by Van Loon and Whittington (1976:8) as being "Firmly stated requests by interested parties for allocative outputs which will be to their advantage," and were regarded by Easton (1965:48) as being essential to the operation of the political system.

## Summary and Discussion

In this section, a number of policy making models have been outlined briefly. Of these, the political systems model is utilized in this study because it seems to account best for the interaction that occurs between the political system and the interest groups in its environment.

This is because the systems model provides a framework for the concept accepted in this study that it is the interrelationship between groups in the environment and the government that is important in the formulation of public policy. This study does not examine the interaction between groups, or the struggle for supremacy by one group over its competitors. The effect may well be the same, in the sense that should one group become supreme it would presumably be able to significantly influence the policy makers while it retained that supremacy. But the position taken by the group theorists is that the role of the government is a passive, adjudicating one, which ratifies or legitimizes policy decisions which have already been determined by the results of the group struggle. Systems theory suggests that the government plays a more central role in policy making, in fact making the decisions, but as a result of pressure from the various interest groups. This marks a significant and important distinction between the two models.

A number of other models also have some relationship to the systems model; elitism, for instance, can be regarded as being a special case of the general systems model. Incrementalism can also be explained within systems theory, particularly in a situation such as that prevailing in education in Alberta, where a number of interest groups exist which could be regarded as being quite influential. These may have significantly different policies on the same matter, and it may well be that any decisions made by the government to change existing policies will contain minor alterations and compromises that will satisfy each group a little rather than one group completely.

To summarize,the political systems model of policy making provides an essential framework for this study because it gives a suitable explanation for the role of the government in public policy making in Alberta.

## The Role of Interest Groups in Canadian Public Policy Making

### What Are Interest Groups?

As outlined in the previous section, the systems approach to policy making suggests that policies are the outcome of demands placed upon a political system by forces operating in the environment. These forces can be defined as pressure groups or interest groups. These two terms are frequently used interchangeably (Pross, 1975:2), but writers such as Truman (1961:38) and Presthus (1973:70) objected to the negative connotations of "pressure group" and hence avoided its use, a practice that it adopted here whenever possible.

Interest groups were defined by Almond (1964:132-133) as being those groups which:

> Articulate political demands in the society, seek support for these demands among other groups by advocacy and bargaining, and attempt to transform these demands into authoritative public policy by influencing the choice of political personnel, and the various processes of public policy making and enforcement.

Pross (1975:2), although using the term "Pressure group," defined these as "Organizations whose members act together to influence public policy in order to promote their common interest." Truman (1961:33) defined an interest group as:

> Any group that, on the basis of one or more shared attitudes, makes certain claims upon other groups in the society for the establishment, maintenance, or enhancement of forms of behavior that are implied by the shared attitudes.

Hence, interest groups are those groups within the environment of a political system which make demands upon that political system for the formulation of public policies that will advance their own particular cause or causes.

Several writers have emphasized that interest groups are only those that have at least some form of structure or organization. Engelmann and Schwartz (1967:92) stated that "Organized interest groups are the vehicles through which the demands emanating from the various sub-systems of the society are carried to the political system." Pross (1975:2) in a similar vein, stated that:

> Pressure groups are not haphazard collections of individuals. They are organizations: groups of people associating together within the framework of a formal structure to share and promote a common interest.

Eckstein (1963:391), as did Truman (1961), took an opposing view that to regard all group activity in the environment as coming only from organized groups was to either deny the effectiveness of unorganized interests or to "regard them only as the pawns of the organized pressures."

## Classification of Interest Groups

A number of typologies have been developed which allow interest groups to be divided into types; several of these are now discussed.

Pross (1975:9-18) suggested that interest groups could be classified on a continuum according to the degree of structure or institutionalization they possessed. He developed a framework for the classification of groups according to this variable as determined on the basis of their objectives, organizational features and type of communication with the government. The two extremes of the continuum were issue-oriented groups and institutionalized groups. Pross (1975:11) defined issue-oriented groups as those with:

> Limited organizational continuity and cohesion; most are very badly organized. Their knowledge of government is minimal and often naive. Their membership is extremely fluid. They encounter considerable difficulty in formulating and adhering to short-range objectives and they usually have a low regard for the organizational mechanisms they have developed for carrying out their goals.

Institutionalized interest groups were defined by Pross (1975:10) as those having (1) organizational continuity and cohesion, (2) extensive knowledge of those sectors of government that affect them, (3) a stable membership, (4) objectives that are concrete and immediate, and (5) more direction towards organizational imperatives than towards any particular objective.

Pross claimed that all interest groups could be accommodated within this framework, and he established four main types of groups within the continuum, the issue-oriented group, fledgling groups, mature groups, and those that are institutionalized. There is a tendency for groups over time to move upward on this continuum towards a higher level of institutionalization. His classification is shown in Figure 2.

Presthus (1973:69) used a classification system based upon whether membership of the group was voluntary or compulsory. He stated:

| GROUP | OBJECTIVES | ORGANIZATIONAL FEATURES | USE OF MEDIA | ACCESS TO GOVERNMENT |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| INSTITUTIONALIZED | Multiple, Broadly defined, Collective, Selective | Extensive Human and Financial Resources | Public relations, Image building ads.<br>Press releases | Regular contact, Representation on advisory boards,<br>Staff exchanges with department |
| MATURE | Multiple, Broadly defined, Collective | Staff includes Professionals; Group Alliances | Some briefs to public bodies, Some public relations and press releases | Regular contact with officials. |
| FLEDGLING | Multiple but Closely Related | Membership can support small staff | Presentation of briefs to public bodies. | Some contact with officials. Confrontation |
| ISSUE-ORIENTED | Single, Narrowly defined | Small membership, no paid staff | Publicity-oriented protests | Confrontation with politicians and officials. |

Figure 2

Pressure Group Classification Framework (Pross, 1975)

> The concepts of voluntary and compulsory association seem useful in differentiating interest groups that tend to have a specific ulterior motive, such as economic security, from those [that] are bound together by normative ties that seek to advance a "cause."

Using this differentiation, Presthus then developed a taxonomy that could be used to analyze interest groups according to whether they were: compulsory or voluntary; temporary or permanent; economic or instrumental; mass or selective; producer-oriented or consumer-oriented; local-provincial or federal; federated or unitary; oligarchical or participative; private or public.

Almond and Powell (1966:74-79) divided interest groups into several types. These included:

(i) Anomic Interest Groups. These were groups that were loosely organized or spontaneous in development, and which occasionally indicated their particular interests through the use of riots, demonstrations and assassinations.

(ii) Nonassociational Interest Groups. These were groups based on kinship, ethnic, or regional lines which sometimes expressed demands through family members, religious heads and individuals. Almond and Powell (1966:76-77) stated that:

> The distinguishing characteristics of such interest groups are the intermittent pattern of articulation, the absence of an organized procedure for establishing the nature and means of articulation, and the lack of continuity in internal structure.

(iii) Institutional Interest Groups. These were more formally organized groups with professionally employed personnel and with designated political and social functions apart from interest articulation. Examples include political parties, legislatures, bureaucracies, and churches.

(iv) Associated Interest Groups. These were the most specialized of the group types mentioned, and consisted of trade unions, businessmen's organizations, ethnic associations and civic groups. "Their particular characteristics are explicit representation of the interests of a particular group, a full-time professional staff, and orderly procedures for the formulation of interests and demands." (p. 78)

Engelmann and Schwartz (1975:144-146) gave a taxonomy of interest groups based upon a division into two main types of economic and non-economic interest groups. In the first category they placed such organizations as the Canadian Labor Congress, the National Farmers' Union, and the Canadian Bankers' Association. The second group of non-economic interests was divided into nine categories ranging from professional groups such as the Canadian Medical Association, to public service organizations, veterans' groups, ethnic groups, religious groups and women's interest groups.

Such an approach seems to offer little by way of understanding of the functions and operation of interest groups in the Canadian political system; it appears to be descriptive rather than explanatory, and as such is of less significance than some of the other taxonomies.

Van Loon and Whittington (1976:289-291) suggested a classification system based upon three dichotomous variables, activity, origin, and structure. Group activity was regarded as being either self-interested or promotional in nature, groups originated either by being created by the government--a reverse pressure group--or through autonomous development, while the structure of a group was either active or categoric, the latter being a latent group that may become active if the right issue arises. Almond (1964:132) similarly discussed manifest and latent interests.

As can be observed from the above, there is a significant amount of overlap between many of the taxonomies. It is suggested that those based upon the structure and purpose of the groups are of more relevance to the analysis of interest groups in Canada than those which simply describe the types of interests which are represented. To go further and add the method of functioning as part of the taxonomy, as Pross (1975) has done, adds an extra dimension to the analysis which could be useful for political scientists.

It is not usually possible to gather data which are precise enough to enable accurate placement in one category or the another in the social sciences as required by a dichotomous classification system; again, Pross's continuum approach seems a more realistic assessment of the real-life situation.

The continuum classification system developed by Pross and outlined earlier is used in this study for the analysis of interest groups because it is based on variables relevant to the study of influence. These variables include the structure and purpose of groups, and the type of access to government policy makers. The system also takes account of the means by which the group attempts to influence government so as to achieve its goals.

## Functions of Interest Groups

Interest groups serve a number of functions in a political system, but these can mostly be subsumed under one general function which is the raison d'etre for their existence: to make demands upon the political system. (Almond, 1964:132; Engelmann and Schwartz, 1975:144) Interest groups develop because certain policies are operational which a number of individuals disagree with or are adversely affected by; they form together in groups to try and exert influence upon the government to have these policies changed. Presthus (1973:142) referred to this as the linkage function; Almond and Powell called it (1966:73) interest articulation.

The result of the formation of such groups is a "chain reaction" (Key, 1964:129) in which other interest groups develop to protect the interests of individuals affected by the demands of the first group. The formation of a group to represent the interests of beef producers through seeking an increase in the price of beef and a restriction in imports may well lead to the emergence of a consumer group seeking to keep the price of beef as low as possible. The formation of a group seeking government assistance for private schools may be opposed by a group attempting to ensure that all available funds for education go to government schools; in Australia in the 1960's, the extension of "state-aid" to private schools led to the formation of a group known as DOGS--the Defence of Government Schools.

Interest groups have this basic purpose of making demands upon policy making bodies in order to achieve their own objectives, but in doing so serve a number of other functions also.

Van Loon and Whittington (1976:287) suggested that interest groups provide "an integrating force in society, which can 'connect' the individual to the political system." This is a two-way connection; the individual, through membership of an interest group, is able to make his voice heard by the policy makers, and is involved in the actual policy making process when--and if--the government uses the interest group to gauge reactions to such policies. Thus the individual has, to some extent at least, both a "voice" and an "ear" in the activities of the government.

Interest groups provide a formal structure with which a government can interact, and this is frequently important in the formation of advisory committees, Royal Commissions and Committees of Inquiry. Members of interest groups are often selected to represent the views of their groups as part of a general inquiry into a particular area of concern. For example, the Alberta Teachers' Association has representatives on a number of government committees such as the following:

Achievement Test Advisory Committee
Advisory Committee on School Day/School Year Study
Advisory Commission on School Facilities
Board of Teacher Education and Certification
Curriculum Policies Board
Minister's Advisory Commission on Student Achievement
(ATA Members' Handbook, 1977:60)

As well as involving them in formal inquiries into areas of concern, the government can request interest groups (Eckstein, 1960:163) to simply express an opinion about, or react to, proposed policies so that the government can gain the reactions of that group before a policy is announced to the general public. Pross (1975:6) called this policy legitimation. It means that if changes to proposed policies are then considered necessary, they can be made prior to the stage of parliamentary or general debate and thus the government does not lose "face." Engelmann and Schwartz (1975:153) suggested that a set of unofficial rules governed such pre-releases of information which both sides were required to observe if they wished this procedure to continue.

The importance of this function has led to what Van Loon and Whittington (1976:290) called reverse pressure groups. These are groups that do not develop spontaneously but are "encouraged" in their formation by the government in order to provide it with an organized group to fulfill the functions described above.

Eckstein (1963:411) suggested that there are two types of interaction between the government and interest groups relative to the exchange of information about new policies, negotiations and consultations. He stated:

> Negotiations take place when a governmental body makes a decision hinge upon the actual approval of organizations interested in it, giving the organizations a veto over the decision; consultations occur when the views of the organization are solicited and taken into account but are not considered to be in any sense decisive.

Pross (1975:24) suggested also that interest groups serve a self-regulatory function in that they control the operation or behavior of their members within the limits of the group's policies. He called this acting as agents of the government. (1975:7) In education for example, the behavior of teachers is at least partly controlled by the Alberta Teachers' Association through the operation of a professional code of ethics which is legally enforceable. The same is true of the Canadian Medical Association and the Bar Association, while union rules prescribe the behavior of union members in numerous other types of occupations.

Emphasis here has been placed upon the political functions served by interest groups, but they also provide a wide variety of services to their members. Some of these are therapeutic, as in the case of Alcoholics Anonymous or groups for parents of exceptional children, whose members can talk together about common problems; some are more highly developed such as the research function of professional associations. These are the social roles referred to by Presthus (1973:141), and are often of more importance to the individual member than the political role.

Thus the two main political functions of interest groups are interest articulation and policy legitimation. The extent to which these are successful is dependent upon the influence of the group.

## The Influence of Interest Groups

The environments of political systems are made up of a large number of interest groups, some very large and wealthy national organizations and some small, localized and impoverished. Eckstein (1963:395) suggested that the number of interest groups existing in any society was a function of the extent to which the society was "modernized."

As each of these groups attempts to articulate at least one but more commonly a number of demands to the government, it is obvious that the government will be unable to pay equal attention to all demands made upon it. It therefore follows that some groups will be able to exert more influence over government policy making than others. Hence, if interest groups are to survive, they must not only articulate demands, but do so more effectively than other groups also vying for the attention of the government.

Influence was earlier defined as the extent to which one actor or group is able to affect or change the behavior of another actor or group; the measure of the influence of an interest group is therefore the extent to which that group is able to legitimate its demands through government policy making. Anderson (1975:44) stated:

> The influence of interest groups depends on a number of factors. These may include (subject to the rule of *ceteris paribus*--other things being equal) the size of the group's membership, its monetary and other resources, its cohesiveness, the skill of its leadership, its social status, the presence or absence of competing organizations, the attitudes of public officials, and the site of decision-making in the political system.

Similarly, Van Loon and Whittington (1976:301-305) suggested that the influence of a group over public policy making depended upon the structure and resources of the group, the structure of government and its overall policy approach, and the nature of the environment. They suggested (p. 304), for example, that "An interest group will succeed best if its overall aims are in keeping with the prevailing values of the society in which it operates."

Eckstein (1973:416) developed a similar list from which he named the wealth of a group, its organizational cohesiveness, and the political skills of its leaders as the most significant.

Dahl (1976:37) suggested that political influence varies between groups because of differences in the distribution of political resources, which he defined (p. 37) as "the means by which one person can influence the behavior of other persons," the skill with which groups use these resources, and the extent to which they are prepared to use these resources for political purposes.

Dahl (p. 33) also noted, as did Mazzoni and Campbell (1976:22), that the influence of any one group varied considerably according to the particular issue under consideration. He related this to the domain and scope of influence, which he defined as:

> The domain of an actor's influence consists of the other actors influenced by him. The scope of an actor's influence refers to the matters on which he can influence them . . . Any statement about influence that does not clearly indicate the domain and scope it refers to verges on being meaningless.

Thus it is important to talk about the influence of a particular interest group in relation to the organization it is able to influence, in this case the government; it is also important to note the areas or subjects about which it is able to influence the government. It is reasonable to expect that the Alberta Teachers' Association would have a high level of influence with the government in areas connected closely to education or in specific aspects of education itself; it could also be expected that the same high level of influence may not be apparent if the A.T.A. tried to influence government policy on new methods of building highways. Influence is largely issue- or subject-specific.

The perception of the extent of political influence possessed by interest groups in Canada varies considerably and is difficult to assess; in fact, La Palombara (1963:425) suggested that "Except on the basis of highly unreliable impressions, it is impossible to measure the relative influence that groups exert over administrative decisions." Von Loon and Whittington (1976:289) suggested that the influence of interest groups in Canada is much less than in Britain and the United States because of differences in government structure, while Presthus (1973:10-11) found their influence to be much greater than that of political parties. Aucoin (1975:187) stated that although many groups were in existence, they were not usually well-known and often only became recognized publicly when an issue became one of major importance.

Writing of educational interest groups, Milstein and Jennings

(1973:55) stated:

> Educational interest groups in the past have generally been able to impress legislators of the special nature of education. Today they find these bodies less receptive to their demands . . . because there are indications of increased competition for the public dollar, requiring the educational interest groups to devise new tactics at the state level.

Mazzoni and Campbell (1976:20) found that in the United States, teacher groups were among the most highly influential in educational matters, and that other influential groups included the state governors and the Chief State School Officers. State boards of education were relatively low in influence.

## The Operation of Interest Groups in Canada

Interest groups seek to exert influence upon the government. Their chances of success are dependent upon the structure of the groups and the resources at their disposal; the extent to which they succeed is related to the methods they use and the centre towards which their efforts are directed.

The methods through which influence can be exercised were listed by Almond and Powell (1966:87-88) as including (1) physical violence and demonstrations, (2) personal connection with members of the government, (3) elite representation on government advisory boards and commissions, (4) making use of formal and institutional channels of access such as the mass media, political parties and the legislature, and (5) keeping demands single and specific.

Engelmann and Schwartz (1975:149) suggested that influence is exerted through involvement with the Civil Service, Advisory Boards and Royal Commissions. They quoted organizations such as the Alberta Wheat Pool and the Canadian Federation of Agriculture as instances where members of interest groups have been appointed by governments to advisory boards and are thus in strong positions to represent the views of their groups.

As far as methods are concerned, Pross (1975:19) stated:

> The Canadian policy system tends to favour elite groups, making functional accommodative consensus-seeking techniques of political communication, rather than conflict-oriented techniques that are directed towards the achievement of objectives through arousing public opinion.

The result of this, as Van Loon and Whittington (1976:287) stated, is that "The vast majority of Canadian groups make their demands through legitimate channels and by legitimate means."

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, Canada has a federal system of government in which powers and responsibilities are divided between the federal government and the provincial legislatures. The result of this is that interest groups develop along lines similar to the division of power among the governments; strong provincial groups form to deal with provincial matters, while nation-wide interest groups deal with the federal government. This has been evidenced by studies such as those done by Dawson (1975) and Kwavnick (1975), while Engelmann and Schwartz (1975:146) discussed the structure of a number of interest groups as illustrations of this point.

Hence, the first problem concerning the application of interest group pressure is determining whether to apply it at a national or provincial level. As far as special education is concerned, the matter is not clear-cut. Certainly, educational funding is a provincial concern, hence pressure should be applied at that point if further funds or changes in policies are required. At the same time, the example of Canada's nearest neighbor, and past experience, serve as reminders that pressure at the federal level, especially when on a highly sensitive matter, may gain satisfaction at that level also. The result is that there are interest groups such as the Canadian Council for Exceptional Children which operate nationally, but there are also a great number of provincially-centred groups.

The second problem is to determine the agency towards which pressure will be directed. This may be the Legislature, the Cabinet, or the bureaucracy. Almond (1964:136) stated:

> Interest groups tend to seek out the important points of access in the legislative process, the points where legislative policy is initiated, and where revision, vetoing and favorable action are possible.

As was pointed out early in this chapter, the Cabinet is in a more strategic position for the initiation of policy in Canada than the Legislature (Dawson, 1975; Pross, 1975; Van Loon and Whittington, 1976; Engelmann and Schwartz, 1975; and to some extent, Presthus, 1973). Engelmann and Schwartz (1975:156) quoted McGillivray as having said, "When I see members of Parliament being lobbied, it's a sure sign to me that the lobby lost its fight in the civil service and the cabinet." In other words, if an interest group wished to exert maximum influence over government policy making, it should apply that influence to members of the Cabinet.

Presthus (1973:153) did not entirely agree with this, and presented evidence that a significant number of groups did make approaches to members of Parliament. Barry (1975) also showed that Parliament can serve as an effective forum for the presentation of interests. Yet, to Pross (1975:20),

> The Cabinet is the final decision-making authority in the political system, and the pressure groups, whether issue-oriented or institutionalized, behave accordingly, attempting either to secure access or to embarrass ministers into compliance.

Both Presthus (1973:148) and Key (1964:138) found that upper levels of the bureaucracy were also important agencies in policy formulation. So much of the work of policy making was delegated to the bureaucrats because of the increased complexity and specialization of the subject matter that they were able to exercise considerable control over the policy making process. This level, too, seems a sensible place for interest groups to apply pressure in order to achieve their objectives.

Political parties have not been considered as one of the agencies with which interest groups interact because evidence suggests that they are not regarded as part of the policy making structure in Canada. Engelmann and Schwartz, (1975:156-166) suggested that involvement with political parties is actually avoided by interest groups so as to prevent any impressions developing that an interest group is affiliated with any one political party. That party may lose the next election, and then the group is left "out in the cold."

## Summary

This section has analysed the role of interest groups in public policy making in Canada. Interest groups were defined, emphasis being placed upon the formal nature of their organization. Typologies of interest groups developed by Pross, Presthus, Almond and Powell, Engelmann and Schwartz, and Van Loon and Whittington were discussed. Functions of interest groups in the political system were noted, especially the placing of demands upon the government to effect changes in public policy. Factors believed to determine the relative influence of interest groups were considered, and the belief that influence was issue-specific noted. It was pointed out that interest groups in Canada tend to work through recognized channels, become involved in government committees, and direct their lobbying towards the Cabinet rather than the Legislature.

## The School Placement of Exceptional Children

Credit for starting the current controversy over the most appropriate form of school placement for exceptional children is generally given to Lloyd Dunn (1968), although writers such as Haring et al. (1958), Johnson (1962), Blatt (1960), and Birch and Stevens (1955) had raised the subject much earlier. Dunn questioned whether the special class which had become the traditional placement for mildly retarded children was in fact the most appropriate placement for such children, particularly those coming from socially or culturally deprived backgrounds. But he was referring only to one specific group of exceptional children, not to those who were more severely retarded or handicapped, although this extension has since been made by others writing in the field, as was noted by Smith and Arkans (1974:497) and Payne and Murray (1974:123). Dunn (1968:6) stated:

> We are not arguing that we do away with our special education programs for the moderately and severely retarded, for other types of more handicapped children, or for the multiply handicapped.

Lilly (1970:43) also emphasized this limitation, although extending the concept further than Dunn, when he said, "Traditional special education services as represented by self-contained special classes should be discontinued immediately for all but the most severely impaired . . ."

Dunn (1968:11) suggested that the mildly retarded would be better placed in regular classes along with non-handicapped children, receiving special assistance with learning disabilities through contact with special education consultants. Rather than using special classes, he felt that:

> Instead, we should try keeping slow learning children in the mainstream of education, with special educators serving as diagnostic, clinical, remedial, resource room, itinerant and/or team teachers, consultants, and developers of instructional materials and prescriptions for effective teaching.

Until Dunn's article appeared, the most common form of school placement for exceptional children was in special schools or classes. Many of these were run by parents or voluntary agencies and were quite separate from the public school system. Frequently, too, only the mildly exceptional were provided for within the public schools, and the more severely exceptional were placed in privately-operated separate special schools.

The decade before the appearance of Dunn's article had been a period of rapid expansion of special classes, as educational facilities were expanded to include greater numbers of exceptional children. Then began the reaction against the segregated class and the concentration upon mainstreaming that has dominated special education, at least in the United States, for the past ten years. The term was defined extensively by Kaufman et al. (1975:4) and is given earlier in this paper. Birch (1974:2) gave a more direct definition when he stated: "Simply stated, mainstreaming is providing a high-quality special education to exceptional children while they remain in regular grades for as much of the day as possible."

Caster (1975:174) pointed out some of the misconceptions associated with mainstreaming when he stated:

> Mainstreaming is NOT:
>
> * wholesale return of all exceptional children in special classes to regular classes;

*permitting children with special needs to remain in regular classrooms without the supportive services that they need;
*ignoring the need of some children for a more specialized program than can be provided in the general educational program;
*less costly than serving children in special self-contained classrooms.

The three terms "mainstreaming," "integration," and "normalization," have all been used at times to refer to the same basic concept, although some differentiation in usage usually is made. Thus Kaufman et al. (1975) referred to integration as the physical aspect of exceptional children being placed in the same classes as normal children, but used mainstreaming to mean the total educational and social integration of exceptional children into the regular school situation; Gearheart and Weishahn (1976:vii) took the opposing view by defining integration as "Becoming a part of the mainstream, a term that implied joint efforts on behalf of special and general educators to assist in meaningful integration." They stated, in fact, that they would use the two terms interchangeably, a practice adopted frequently in normal usage. Wolfensberger (1972:27-28) used the term normalization to refer to the total life concept of making the world of the exceptional as normal as possible, a concept which of course includes normalization of the school situation to the greatest possible extent also.

The emphasis upon mainstreamed special education programs developed because there was little empirical research evidence to show that the special class was achieving its objectives in the face of growing discontent and opposition to it on social and other grounds. Instead, it became acceptable to place children in "the least restrictive environment," a term now preferred by the Council for Exceptional Children to "mainstreaming." (Hardy, 1977:14)

However, it seems that the same lack of evidence that was evident with regard to the efficacy of special classes is also true of mainstreamed facilities, and several researchers (Adamson and Van Etten, 1972; Gickling and Theobald, 1975; Smith and Arkans, 1974) have cautioned against the total rejection of the segregated class/school concept. What they did suggest was that it may be necessary to consider a number of different approaches that would allow the individual needs of each child to be matched against an appropriate form of delivery. Adamson and Van Etten (1972:736) stated that "Research findings have questioned the efficacy of special classes, but no research has demonstrated that special classes are unsuccessful with all children."

Stainbeck and Stainbeck (1975:91-94), too, adopted a "wait-and-see" attitude toward the special class, suggesting that it was better to fully research the problem before discarding one method and adopting another.

Numerous advantages and disadvantages have been claimed for mainstreaming, and some of these are presented in this chapter. The material is grouped under the three headings of (1) the social and academic benefits to the children, (2) attitudes towards forms of school placement, and (3) problems of administration. A number of delivery models are then discussed. First, however, several general comments are given.

Jackson and Taylor (1973:29) summarized the advantages usually claimed for the integrated class setting:

> Those in favor of integrated classes agreed that (1) they conformed more closely to democratic values and principles; (2) the mentally retarded child would profit both academically and socially from opportunities for frequent association with normal

children; (3) the normal child would acquire a better understanding of and a much greater respect for individual differences; (4) parents tend to devalue their children to a much greater degree in special classes when compared to regular classes; (5) labelling not only influences the retarded child's perceptions of his own abilities, but also affects his actual abilities; and (6) once segregation becomes institutionalized, it is most difficult to eliminate.

These are basically similar to a number of factors suggested by Birch (1974:2-7) as providing the impetus for the mainstreaming movement in the United States:

1. School systems are better able today to deliver special educational services anywhere they are needed.
2. Parental willingness to press their demands upon the educational system has increased significantly.
3. Opposition to the tendency to label children according to specific handicaps has increased considerably, particularly amongst special educators themselves.
4. Court decisions have acted to make unnecessary segregated placement of children unlawful.
5. The validity of testing and measuring instruments upon which placements in special classes were often based, has been questioned both by educators and the courts; one result of the common use of these instruments was an unnecessarily high number of children from lower socio-economic groups having been classified as retarded.
6. The civil rights movement showed a racial inbalance between children placed in special services and those not so placed.
7. The belief developed that non-exceptional children would benefit socially from interaction with those who were exceptional.
8. The effectiveness of the special class in providing social and/or

academic benefits to exceptional children was questioned.

9. Because of increased costs generally, and the need for financial restraint, there has been a movement away from separate facilities because of their great cost.
10. Democratic principles are not really met through the provision of segregated services for the exceptional.

Some of these are now discussed in greater detail.

## The Social and Academic Development of Children in Integrated and Segregated School Settings

It is difficult to establish definitively which form of school placement is best socially or academically for exceptional children, mainly because of conflicting research results. The research, nevertheless, is quite extensive. For example, Meyerowitz (1962) found that the self-concept of exceptional children was negatively affected by their placement in special classes. Jones (1974:22-30) found that children made such comments as "If you want a girlfriend, she won't want you 'cause you're in the special class. She'll think you're stupid and kinda weird." However, this was not borne out by Lawrence and Winschel (1973:315) who stated that "Additional support for this finding is not forthcoming."

The claim has also been made that interaction between exceptional and non-exceptional children would occur regularly in integrated--or even semi-integrated--settings, to the benefit of both groups of children. Gearheart and Weishahn (1976:29) stated:

> An obvious advantage of educating the handicapped children in regular classrooms is that children need to be exposed to differences in individuals--not for the purposes of "feeling sorry for" another individual but to gain respect for and appreciate the differences in individuals.

Ziegler and Hambledon (1976:460), writing of an experimental situation in Ontario, claimed that:

> There can be little doubt that the placement of the special classes in a regular school was extremely effective in promoting interaction between the retarded and non-retarded students, and thus in providing a more normal environment for the retarded child.

Even so, other researchers have been less convinced of their results than were Ziegler and Hambledon. Nash and McQuistin (1975:1) stated that they could find no statistical evidence to justify the conclusion that integrated settings were superior to non-integrated ones. In similar research to Ziegler and Hambledon, but with older trainable mentally retarded children, Nash and McQuistin found that no significant differences occurred between the social and academic development of children in a segregated setting and those in a semi-integrated one. But they did conclude (1975:64) that "While no specific advantages have been found to arise from semi-integration, no disadvantages have been found which could not be readily overcome." Their conclusion was, therefore, that although the semi-integrated setting was apparently no better than the segregated one as far as social and academic achievement was concerned, it was no worse either; and since it had other advantages, it was still worthwhile considering.

Gottlieb (1975:314) found that integrated educable mentally retarded children were frequently not accepted socially by their non-exceptional peers, and in a cross-cultural study between Norway and the United States (1974:317) concluded that the educable mentally retarded children who had been integrated into regular classes were more often rejected than were children who had remained in segregated classrooms. Snyder, Apolloni, and Cooke (1977:262-266) also noted that non-exceptional children interacted primarily with other non-exceptional children, even in integrated settings.

A further benefit claimed for mainstreaming is that when exceptional children mix freely with non-exceptional children, they can use the normal children as models for their behavior. Peterson, Peterson, and Scriven (1977:223-224) found that, using preschool children as subjects, both the exceptional and non-exceptional children used other non-exceptional children as models for imitation. Their conclusion was that such mixing was beneficial because "non-handicapped children have little to lose, and the handicapped have much to gain," (1977:223) from such interaction.

Devoney et al. (1974:363), on the other hand, found that the exceptional did not really imitate the non-exceptional in most situations unless the play situation was heavily structured by the teacher, and that even then only minimal imitation occurred.

Smith and Arkans (1974:498) were firm in their support for placement of the severely retarded in segregated settings; they stated: "Need we rediscover that such a child will once again be found to be a 'rejected isolate' in the regular class?"

Vacc (1968:197-204) found that emotionally disturbed children, when placed in regular classes, made less academic progress and negative rather than positive gains behaviorally, when compared to others placed in special classes. They were also less well accepted than normal children in the same classes. However, a follow-up study (Vacc, 1972:15-22) gave contradictory results to this, leading Vacc to conclude that:

> Emotionally disturbed children who did not receive special class intervention are accomplishing the objectives of academic achievement, overt behavior, and social position at the same level as children who did have the advantages of a special class. Thus, the conception of placing emotionally-disturbed children in special classes for rehabilitation is called into question.

Edwards (1975), and Warner et al. (1973) found that social development in segregated classes was often beneficial because it offered a sense of security and comfort to exceptional children who may have experienced failure and frustration in the regular class. Warner et al. (1973:38) stated:

> The overall finding which emerges from this study is . . . that the special class is a generally stimulating and comfortable placement for children who have had difficulty in adjusting to other placements within the educational system.

McKinnon (1970:302-303) found that exceptional children liked being in a special class because they received more assistance from the teacher and had a greater chance of success. This liking was however offset by a general dislike felt for other members of the class. This result was similar to one obtained by Jones (1974:22-30) who found that exceptional children did not like being placed in a special class but actually enjoyed being in one.

When Warner et al. (1973:37-38) asked a group of children if they liked being in a special class, 61 percent answered that they did. This led Warner et al. (1973:38) to conclude that the special class is "a generally stimulating and comfortable placement for children who have had difficulty in adjusting to other placements within the school."

The evidence presented above is not complete, but should serve to indicate that, when considering the most beneficial form of placement for exceptional children in terms of their social and academic development, it is almost impossible to say that one form of placement is better than another. As Cantrell and Cantrell (1976:381) stated: "Although there are many reasons for maintaining exceptional children within the mainstream of public education, there is little empirical data directly supporting the rationale of mainstreaming."

Nevertheless, for reasons mentioned elsewhere in this study, to say that mainstreaming is no worse on academic and social grounds than other forms of delivery systems probably means that it can be justified on other grounds as being a worthwhile part of a total approach to special education.

## Attitudes Toward School Placement

A number of attempts have been made to investigate the attitudes of children (some of these have already been mentioned), parents, teachers and administrators to various forms of school placement. Some of these are shown below.

Rapier et al. (1972:219) found that with children, more favorable attitudes towards the exceptional developed according to the amount of contact they had with exceptional children, while Harasymiw and Horne (1976:393-400) found that little lasting change in general attitudes towards the exceptional occurred in teachers, though some increased tolerance toward specific exceptionalities did occur.

Yuker, Block and Young (1966) developed a scale for the measurement of the attitudes of people toward disabled persons. This scale, the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons Scale, (ATDP), has been used extensively to measure changes in attitudes, usually using either the "before-and-after-contact" type of methodology or a single measure correlated with some other measure such as the amount of previous contact with disabled persons experienced.

Conine (1968) for example, found using this scale that contact with disabled friends resulted in more favorable overall attitudes towards the disabled, while Dickie (1967) found that counsellors involved in rehabilitation work were more tolerant towards the disabled than those not so involved. Numerous other studies using this instrument have been described (Block, 1974), many of them giving inconclusive or conflicting evidence of attitude change.

Melcher (1972:547-551) raised the problem of teachers' attitudes toward the school placement of exceptional children being different to attitudes held by educators occupying positions outside of the classroom. He stated:

> During the past ten years, many leaders in the special education movement have enunciated the need for greater "normalization" in the education of the handicapped pupil, while many generic elementary and secondary school educators have advocated the special class or segregated approach to serving children with special needs.

No evidence was advanced by Melcher to support his claim, but if it is so, it creates a number of problems that could jeopardize the successful implementation of an integrated delivery system, in line with suggestions (Haring et al. 1958; Shotel et al. 1972) that the attitude of teachers is an important variable in determining the success of a special education program.

Other studies have suggested that there is a relationship between the willingness of people to integrate exceptional children and the amount of knowledge they possess in the area of special education. Lazar et al. (1972) conducted an experiment with gifted children to investigate attitude changes towards exceptional children. They found, using the ATDP scale, that the group which received instruction in the problems of exceptional children, and shared experiences with them, showed a significant increase ($p<0.05$) in tolerance towards the exceptional when compared with a control group.

Brooks and Bransford (1971:259-260) carried out an educational program with teachers attending a "Summer Institute" at the University of New Mexico, the main aim of which was to increase the level of knowledge that regular classroom teachers had concerning exceptional children. They found (p. 259) that "A concentrated effort to acquaint regular classroom teachers with attitudes and behavioral aspects of exceptional children is beneficial," and concluded that the lack of knowledge about such children and their problems, and about special education in general, was a major reason for teachers being unwilling to accept exceptional children in the regular program.

Haring et al. (1958) investigated the changes that took place in teacher attitudes towards exceptional children during an intensive workshop program designed to increase their knowledge and understanding of exceptional children and the effect these changes had on the relationship between the teacher and the children. They found (1958:63) that significant changes occurred (from $p < 0.001$ to $p < 0.02$) in the willingness of teachers to integrate all types of exceptional children except the mentally retarded, the gifted, those with behavior problems and those who needed special toilet handling. They also concluded (1958:54) that "The knowledge teachers have concerning exceptional children has a potent influence on the social and emotional adjustment of the children."

Shotel et al. (1972:677-683) also investigated teacher attitudes towards exceptional children. They found that favorable attitudes expressed initially by teachers fell significantly over a period of time when educable mentally retarded and emotionally-disturbed children were included in their classes. This led Shotel et al. (1972:682) to conclude that if integration is to be achieved satisfactorily, it may be necessary to completely reorganize the structure of the typical elementary school and for new administrative approaches to be introduced.

Other researchers, noting results such as the above, examined the possibility that the attitudes of teachers towards exceptional children were affected by the type and/or severity of exceptionality, rather than applying generally over a broad range of exceptionalities. Jones (1974:430-435), commenting that most studies to that time had been exceptionality-specific in the sense that they had investigated attitudes to only one type of exceptionality, attempted to discover if there was what he called a "hierarchical structure of attitudes toward the exceptional." His findings suggested a general factor which he regarded as an attitude towards the disabled, and also a number of differentiated attitudes towards specific exceptionalities. His conclusion was that people did show differential attitudes towards various types of exceptional persons.

This was certainly in agreement with the findings of Haring et al. noted above, and also of Shotel et al. (1972), who found that teachers were more willing to integrate learning disabled children than those who were emotionally disturbed, also preferring the emotionally disturbed to those who were educable mentally retarded. Williams and Algozzine (1977:207-212) obtained similar results, showing that teachers were more willing to have physically handicapped children and those with learning disabilities in their regular classrooms than socially maladjusted/emotionally disturbed or educable mentally retarded children. The teachers also felt more competent at dealing with the needs of the physically handicapped and learning disabled children than with the other two groups.

Somewhat different results were obtained by Richardson et al. (1974:143-152) using a camp situation rather than the classroom. They found that preferences shown for friends in this setting were lowest for visibly-handicapped boys, with non-visibly handicapped boys in an intermediate position, and non-handicapped boys being the most preferred.

The research quoted suggests that favorable attitudes should, and can, be developed in teachers of regular classes if integrative approaches are to be implemented; that teachers are more prepared to accept some types of exceptional children in their regular classes than they are others; and that the level of knowledge about exceptional children possessed by teachers is an important factor in determining that level of acceptance.

## Problems of Administration

Little empirical evidence can be quoted to show that relative merits of integration or segregation from an administrative point of view. Nevertheless, some work has been done on this topic, and a number of points are raised below.

Birch (1974:28) found in working with principals of schools with segregated classes attached in Texas that the principals tended to regard the special classes as not really being a part of the regular school, because they had not been consulted over their establishment. This highlights one of the major problems of special education organization; that it has tended in the past to be regarded as a separate system rather than as a sub-system of the mainstream. Other writers (Ballance and Kendall, 1969:54; Gearheart and Weishahn, 1976:11) have also commented upon this problem, while Jackson and

Taylor (1973:17-18) wrote:

> Special education should not be conceived as a separate entity within the school structure but as an integral part of the total educational process, whereby children may receive services in various educational settings within the public school.

It is apparent that segregated delivery systems are more likely to be separated administratively from regular education than, by definition, integrated ones. Even where a range of delivery systems is available, a number of benefits, including ease of transfer from one service to another, is available to make the total range of educational services more successful in meeting the needs of individual children when these are integrated with the total system.

It is also apparent that teachers' training courses will require a different emphasis if integration is to be adopted as the major approach of a school system. All teachers under such a system would have to be trained to provide for the needs of exceptional children rather than a smaller number of teachers who are interested in the area of special education.

Cruickshank (1976:156) was critical of approaches which assumed that integration could simply be "introduced" to teachers:

> Somehow it is assumed that the teachers of the ordinary class will be able to meet the needs of this group of children simply by reason of being a teacher. I cannot subscribe to this fantasy.

Others, too, have drawn attention to the need for ensuring that training programs provide all teachers with the skills needed to cope with the exceptional child (Christie et al. 1972; Brooks and Bransford, 1971; Yates, 1973; Kyritz, 1977). Other researchers (Brooks and Bransford, 1971; Haring et al. 1958) have shown that increasing the amount of knowledge teachers have about exceptional children also increased their willingness to accept exceptional children in regular classrooms.

Morse (1973:172) was very critical of integration and the effect that the presence of exceptional children in regular classrooms could have on the teacher; he stated that "If the regular classroom is to function, it is mandatory that we keep the classroom as free from teacher-exhausting, group-disrupting pupils as possible."

Apter (1977:366) suggested that integration created a sense of uncertainty and confusion in the minds of regular classroom teachers, while Deno (1970:231) and Newcomer (1977:154) suggested that segregated special classes created an attitude among teachers that if a child did not learn in their class, he should simply be transferred to a special class or school. It was viewed to be much easier to remove problems from the classroom that it was to deal with them within the classroom.

An advantage of special classes is that they are clearly visible to parents--and to voters. It is easy to point to the number of special classes established, and to claim that this is clear evidence that much is being done for exceptional children. Integrated facilities are not so visible. This has another effect upon parents, too; Brenton (1975:14) found that:

> Some parents of handicapped children dislike the concept of mainstreaming because they worked hard to get their boys and girls special education, and they're afraid that now their children will either be dumped into regular classrooms without supportive services or that if the services are available at first, they will vanish the moment city and state budgets are cut.

McKinnon (1970:302) also reported feelings of relief from parents when a child was placed in a special class "and it was no longer necessary for his teacher to call almost daily with complaints." At the same time, he also found expressions of parental concern that the special class would set their children apart from others.

Possibly, too, mainstreaming could be implemented because it is considered more economical than providing segregated facilities. Several factors mitigate against this: (1) it would be necessary to provide reduced class sizes if the regular teacher were to cope effectively with a number of exceptional children, even for only part of the day--one experiment in an integrated setting (Bradfield et al. 1973:384-390) immediately reduced the class size by half through bringing in an extra teacher; (2) expensive equipment and facilities would be needed for all classes and/or schools rather than a small number of centralized ones; (3) physical plant would have to be redesigned so that the physically handicapped could cope with movement in, out of, and around school buildings; and (4) specialized ancillary staff such as nurses, speech therapists, and counsellors would need to be more widely dispersed than at present. Hence, it is difficult to imagine that this would be less expensive than providing segregated facilities.

The fear expressed by writers such as Brenton (1975:14) was that the extra facilities and equipment needed for effective mainstreaming would be the things that would be cut under tight economic conditions, and that special education would therefore regress to what it was before special classes were first introduced. This is of course a real danger, but in terms of the definition given by Kaufman et al. (1975:4) and used in this study, the whole mainstreaming approach is jeopardized if such economies are introduced.

An interesting observation was made by Harris and Mahar (1975:95-99) when they noted the effect that the introduction of changes such as resource rooms could have upon teachers of regular classes. They discussed this in terms of what they called "systems shock," "competency crisis," and "interpersonal roadblocks." They stated:

> Systems shock occurs when the delicate balance of role functions and relationships within a system must be readjusted to include a previously unfamiliar, undefined and potentially threatening role . . . . Interpersonal roadblocks suggest that classroom teachers with whom the resource teachers most often fail are possessive of their pupils, defensive about their teaching, and unwilling to expand beyond traditional routines. (1975:97-98)

Obviously it follows from this that teachers have to be taught how to work together in a team situation, with the best interests of the children in mind, if the resource room concept is to be a successful one. The importance of the relationship between the regular classroom teachers and resource teachers was also emphasized by Newcomer (1977:160), particularly if programs developed by the resource teacher are to be carried over into the regular classroom.

In fact, Newcomer (1977:155) suggested that the special education teacher must assume a new role and function as a teacher-consultant rather than a remedial teacher, working for the most part in the regular classroom. This is something similar to the "Zero-reject" concept of Lilly (1971:745-749, discussed on page 72 of this study). Haring (1977:192) also commenting upon the same concept, stated "Thus a teacher consultant or resource teacher model seems to be not only an improvement on existing models but a direct necessity."

These are some of the problems that have to be faced at the administrative level in school systems for special education to be effective. But the crucial question to be answered is the type or types of school placements to be provided, and this question is now considered.

## Models for Delivering Special Education Services

In order to remove the disadvantages under which special education has worked, and to provide for the philosophical shift that mandatory legislation and equal opportunity approaches have required, a number of administrative service models have been developed in special education. Several of these are detailed below. According to the differentiation made by Schworm (1976:180) between a hierarchy of services model and an instructional model, most of those presented can be regarded as indicating hierarchies of services as they do not deal with the organization of instruction.

One feature common to all these approaches is that they give recognition to special education as a part of, and not apart from, the regular education system. Deno (1970:229), for example, stated that her approach "carries forward into organizational structure the assumption that the entire educational enterprise is one vast social system."

A second common feature is that each approach recognizes that no one form of organization will be successful or appropriate for all exceptional children. Instead, they provide a range or continuum of services, from full integration to segregation. They suggest that each child should be examined individually and placed in the "least restrictive environment," in other words, that children be integrated as much as possible. Haring et al. (1958:3) stated:

> A program of selective placement is in reality being advocated, with the recognition that regular class placement, special class placement, contact classes and resource rooms, and improved

> residential school programs each will play an important role in the educational life of individual exceptional children, depending upon the latter's needs, capacities and physical characteristics.

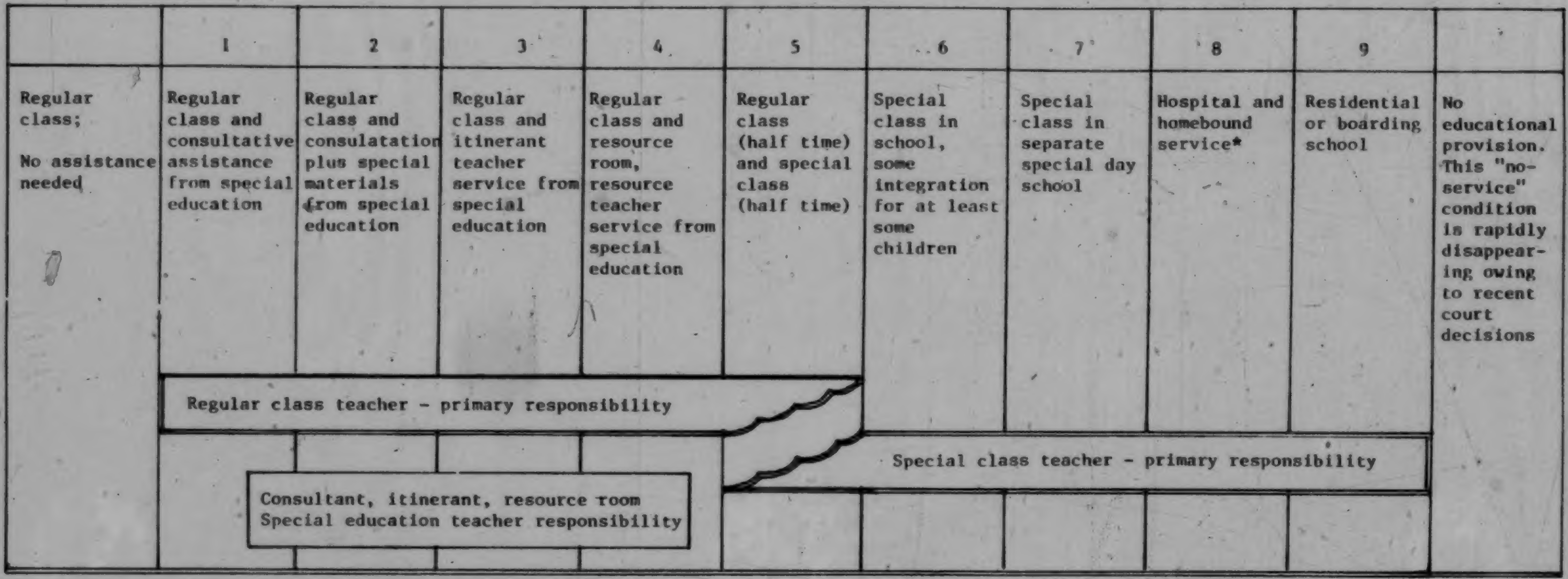
A third feature is that emphasis is placed upon the treatment of the learning problems experienced by the child rather than on the type of exceptionality present. Children are not grouped according to whether they are deaf, or blind, or learning disabled, but according to the type of school placement that will most effectively provide for their individual special needs. The use of labels is avoided.

Finally, each approach requires that a thorough, individualized evaluation process be carried out to ensure that each child is placed in the most appropriate situation, and that this be an ongoing process so that placements can be changed whenever necessary. Emphasis is not placed upon intelligence tests alone, but upon a comprehensive mental, physical and learning diagnosis and interview process that also involves the parent.

Gearheart and Weishahn (1976:22-23) suggested a continuum of alternative educational provisions for exceptional children. This is reproduced in Figure 3 . Of placement in special services, they stated:

> Although we agree that placement in regular classrooms is desirable for the majority of students, there are and will be students whose needs must be met through placement in special education programs . . . . An important basic assumption is that each and every student must be considered individually.

Evelyn Deno (1970:229-237) developed a model that she called the "Cascade of Services" model. This is a widely accepted model for organizing special education, and is "designed to make available whatever different-from-the-mainstream kind of setting is required to control the learning variables critical for the individual case." It



| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regular class;<br>No assistance needed | Regular class and consultative assistance from special education | Regular class and consulatation plus special materials from special education | Regular class and itinerant teacher service from special education | Regular class and resource room, resource teacher service from special education | Regular class (half time) and special class (half time) | Special class in school, some integration for at least some children | Special class in separate special day school | Hospital and homebound service* | Residential or boarding school | No educational provision. This "no-service" condition is rapidly disappearing owing to recent court decisions |
| | Regular class teacher - primary responsibility | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | Special class teacher - primary responsibility | | | | |
| | | Consultant, itinerant, resource room<br>Special education teacher responsibility | | | | | | | | |

*Regular class teacher may (1) assist homebound/hospital teacher; (2) teach the child through telephone hookups or electronic equipment; (3) not be involved at all. If the child is taught by regular teacher through electrical-electronic mode, direct and indirect service may be provided by special education.

Figure 3

A Continuum of Alternative Educational Provisions for Handicapped Children.
(Gearheart and Weishahn, 1976:22-23)

consists of seven levels of classification of educational services based on the type and severity of the exceptionality. It suggests that exceptional children should be accommodated as much as possible in the mainstream, but recognizes that some children may need specialized services of a segregated or partly segregated nature. The model is tapered to indicate the smaller number of children who require the service as the amount of special intervention increases.

The model is shown in Figure 4.

Lilly (1971:745-749) developed what he called the "Zero-reject" concept of special education which focused on the shortcomings of the educational system rather than on those of the child who had failed to learn. He stated:

> The new service model must be a "zero-reject" model, meaning that once a child is enrolled in a regular education program within a school, it must be impossible to administratively separate him from that program for any reason.

In this way, the responsibility for the failure of any child is thrust upon the teacher and the system, making it necessary for additional support services to be provided to the teachers to allow him to cope with problems a child may be facing. Thus, the emphasis is upon upgrading the skills of the teacher rather than providing additional help or special placement for the child, and suggests that special educators should therefore assume a new role of teacher-educators and consultants.

Gallagher (1972:527-535) advocated the development of a special education contract system which would require the development of contracts between children and special education personnel on a six-monthly basis; the contracts would consist of measurable objectives that the system and the child would attempt to achieve.

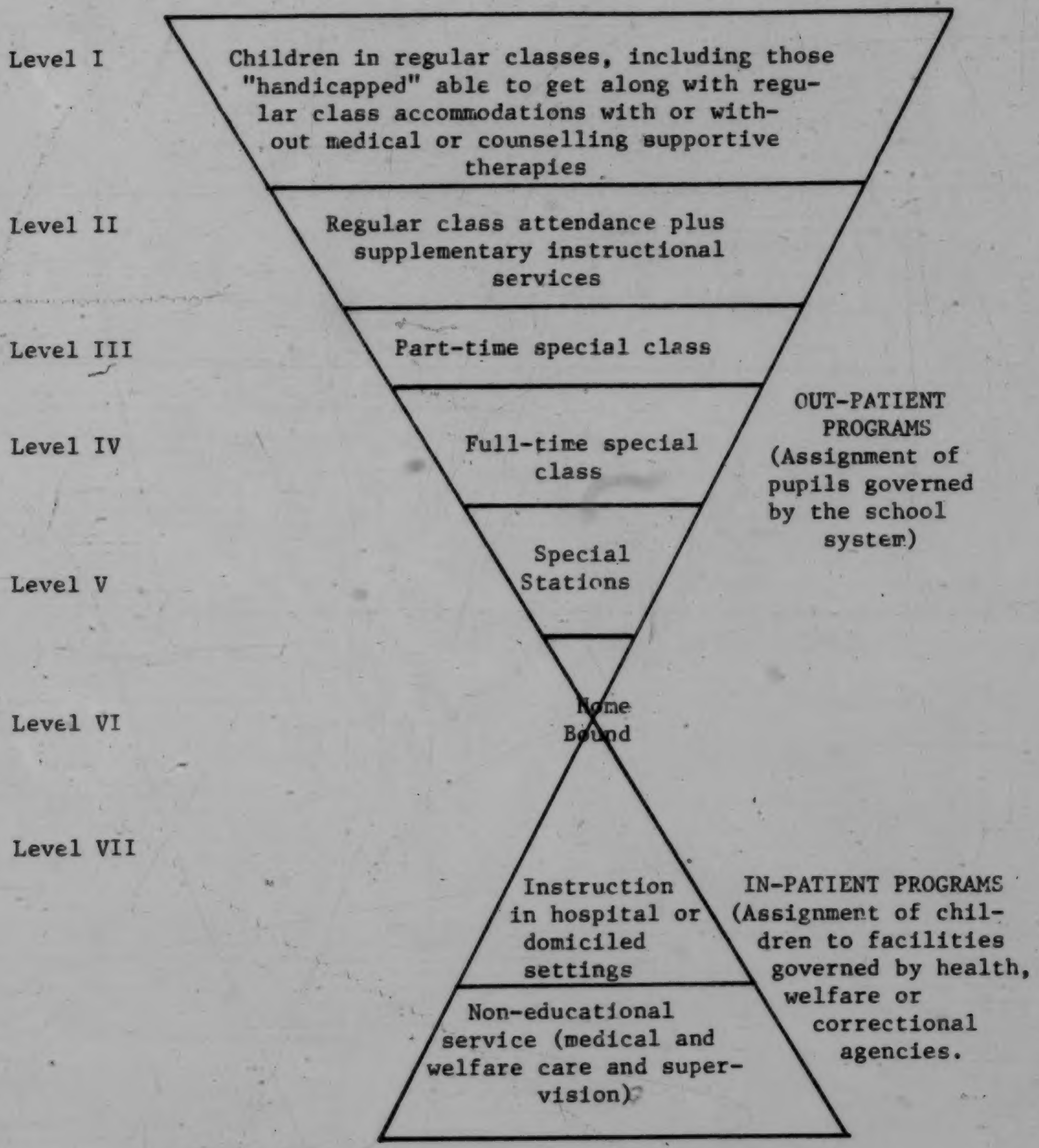

Level I
Children in regular classes, including those "handicapped" able to get along with regular class accommodations with or without medical or counselling supportive therapies
Level II
Regular class attendance plus supplementary instructional services
Level III
Part-time special class
Level IV
Full-time special class
Level V
Special Stations
Level VI
Home Bound
Level VII
Instruction in hospital or domiciled settings
Non-educational service (medical and welfare care and supervision)
OUT-PATIENT PROGRAMS (Assignment of pupils governed by the school system)
IN-PATIENT PROGRAMS (Assignment of children to facilities governed by health, welfare or correctional agencies.

Figure 4

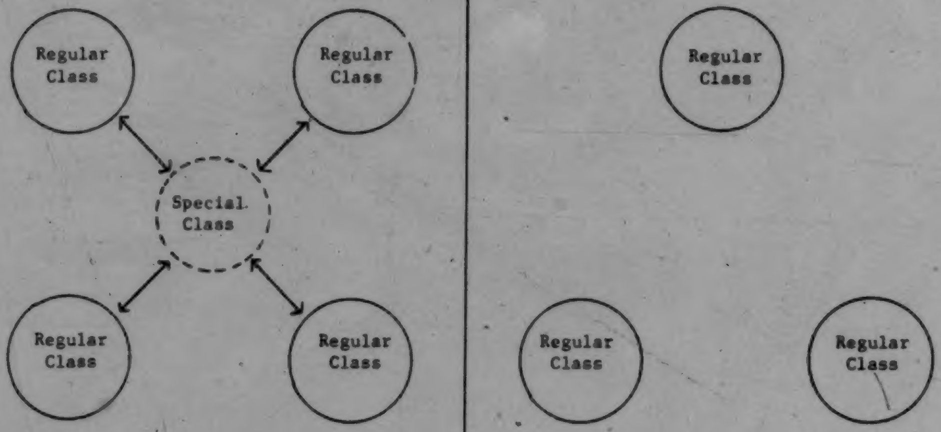
The Cascade Model of Special Educational Service

Guerin and Szatlosky (1974:173-179) presented a number of administrative arrangements for integrated programs for the mildly retarded, mainly using the resource room concept. These are shown in diagram form in Figure 5. They suggested (1974:176) that it was possible to develop an index of integration as a measure of the degree to which eligible students in any school district were integrated and for how long; comparisons could then be made between districts. The index was calculated according to the formula:

$$\text{Index of Integration} = \frac{\text{Total hours of integrated instruction per day}}{\text{Total N of retarded students x total number of instructional hours in the school day}}$$

Foxcroft (1972) suggested that there were four main components of a delivery system, consisting of fully-segregated, semi-integrated, and fully-integrated schools or classes, and campus schools. Semi-integrated classes were those where exceptional children were placed in special classes and then integrated into regular classes for part of the day, while fully-integrated classes were those where the exceptional children were placed in regular classes and received special education assistance for part of the school day. Campus schools were indicated by situations where a special school and a regular school were built on the same campus.

Other models have been developed by Willenberg (1967) and Reynolds (1962), but these will not be reproduced here because of their similarity to models already presented. As pointed out earlier, each of the models discussed provides for a range of forms of school placement which will allow any individual child, once his needs have been effectively diagnosed, to be placed in that form of school placement which is most appropriate for those needs, and all within the

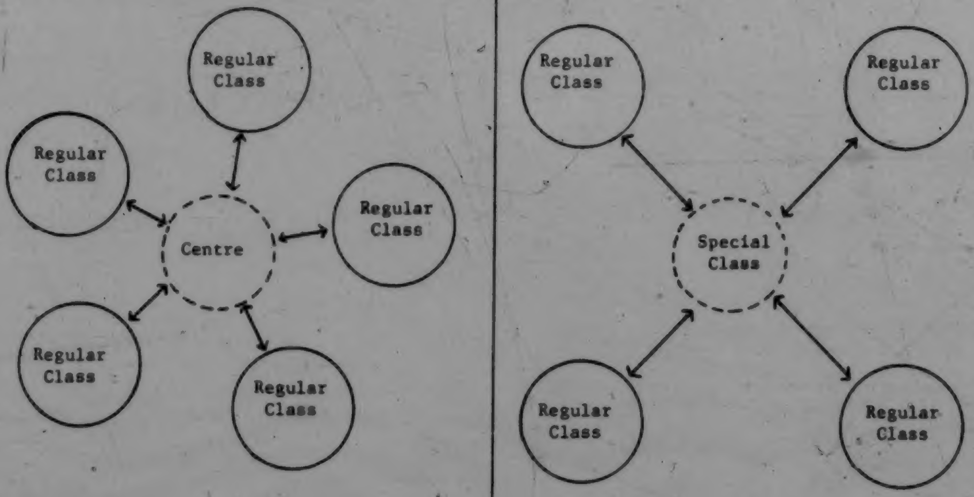

Regular Class
Regular Class
Special Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class

Programmed Partial Integration

Students who have been assigned to special class are programmed into regular classes for blocks of time and by subject areas.

Combination Class

Special students are enrolled in small sized regular classes; special materials are available and aides may be provided.


Regular Class
Regular Class
Centre
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Regular Class
Special Class
Regular Class
Regular Class

Learning Resource Centre

The special teacher functions in a resource centre. Exceptional children from regular classrooms use the centre for evaluations, prescriptive planning and tutorial assistance.

Learning Disability Group

The exceptional student is a member of a regular classroom and is seen by a special teacher for supplementary education. Aides and special materials may be provided.

Figure 5

Diagram of Special Class Arrangements
(Guerin and Szatlosky, 1974)

school system rather than in alternative systems. In this way, special education really does become an integral part of general education.

### Summary

This literature review has provided an analysis of some of the writings and research findings in the four areas relevant to this study. As different forms of school placement are being investigated through the context of policy making, it is relevant to consider the literature concerning public policy making and the functions of interest groups. As these are affected by the structure of government, this too has been considered. Finally, the vast literature concerning the debate over the type of school placement best suited for exceptional children has been sampled, and various administrative models were outlined.

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The study is an attempt to investigate the attitudes of members of major interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children. The literature surveyed in the earlier sections of this chapter provided information about the major areas of public policy making, interest groups, and the school placement of exceptional children. An attempt follows to draw together the key concepts that provide the conceptual basis for the study.

Of the models of public policy making discussed, the political systems model is the approach utilized in this study to provide a basic explanation for the manner in which public policies are arrived at in a political system such as that operating in Alberta. The systems model underlies the whole approach of the study, which posits that public policies are formulated by the government because of demands made upon the political system by forces acting in the environment. Because of the political essence of policy making, if there were no demands expressed, there would be no changes in policies.

The group theory of policy making was rejected for this study because interaction between groups in the environment was not considered as part of the study; instead, it was the interaction between each of the groups and the government which was considered to be of most significance. Nevertheless, it was stated earlier that this is simply a variation in emphasis rather than a completely different approach, and that both the elite model and the group model can be considered as sub-types of the systems approach.

Also considered as an essential part of the conceptual framework to this study was the fact that it is the existence of interest groups in the environment of the political system that forces the system to adapt to changes in that environment. Interest groups make demands upon the system to achieve the objectives which they espouse.

In order to investigate these demands and their effect upon the political system in a specific area of special education, this study attempted to discover the attitudes of members of interest groups relevant to the field of special education in this province. This would then allow the prediction of possible demands that may be made in the future upon the government of Alberta with regard to the school placement of exceptional children; or it might indicate that the majority of groups are satisfied with present policies in this field.

The government will respond to demands according to the amount of influence or support it perceives that these demands have, or are likely to gain. Some groups have a high level of influence both upon the government and with the community in general. Others are not so fortunate and find it more difficult to have their policies implemented. The relative influence of interest groups in any given context is a function of a number of structural variables such as size, resources, and political skill, and of environmental variables such as the form of government and the location of power positions. Pross (1975) developed a continuum typology based on a number of these structural variables and this has been utilized in this study for reasons given earlier. In particular, it has allowed a study of the relationships that the literature suggested exist between the structural variables such as the degree of institutionalism of groups and the relative influence of interest groups on public policy making.

The amount of influence possessed by a group is, as has been pointed out earlier, an important determinant of the policy making process. This is a highly complex variable which, because of its large number of components, would be very difficult to investigate fully in this study. Hence, the technique adopted was to evaluate the amount of influence that a large number of respondents perceived each group to possess, particularly in the area of special education.

Also related to the level of influence accorded to a particular group is the amount of knowledge possessed by members of that group in a particular field. As pointed out in the literature review, the influence that a group possesses on one subject may vary tremendously to that which it has on another quite unrelated subject, because its level of knowledge or expertise is judged to be different too. This is, however, only one of two purposes served by Part III of the questionnaire, as research findings are also quoted to show that the amount of knowledge possessed by respondents is related to their attitudes towards the preferred form of school placement for exceptional children. This will also be investigated as part of the study.

A diagrammatic representation of the framework for the analysis of policy making in this study is shown in Figure 6. An attempt is made later to apply the policies of groups towards the school placement model to this model in order to make some predictions about future government policy making in this field.

As a means of analyzing the types of school placement available for the education of exceptional children, a number of service models presented in the literature review have been synthesized. The result is a composite model which has drawn heavily upon the work of Deno (1970), Foxcroft (1972) and Gearheart and Weishahn (1976). The major concern of this synthesis was to design a service model that would provide a sufficient number of alternative forms of school placement to meet the needs of all exceptional children without allowing the model to become too difficult for respondents to complete it satisfactorily. The model is represented in Figure 7.

Emphasis is placed upon the administrative aspect of providing for the needs of exceptional children, in line with the overall emphasis of the study in that field. No attempt has been made to investigate methods of instruction that would allow each child to achieve his full potential once he or she was placed in an appropriate school setting. Although of great importance, it is outside the scope

A SYSTEMS APPROACH TO POLICY MAKING

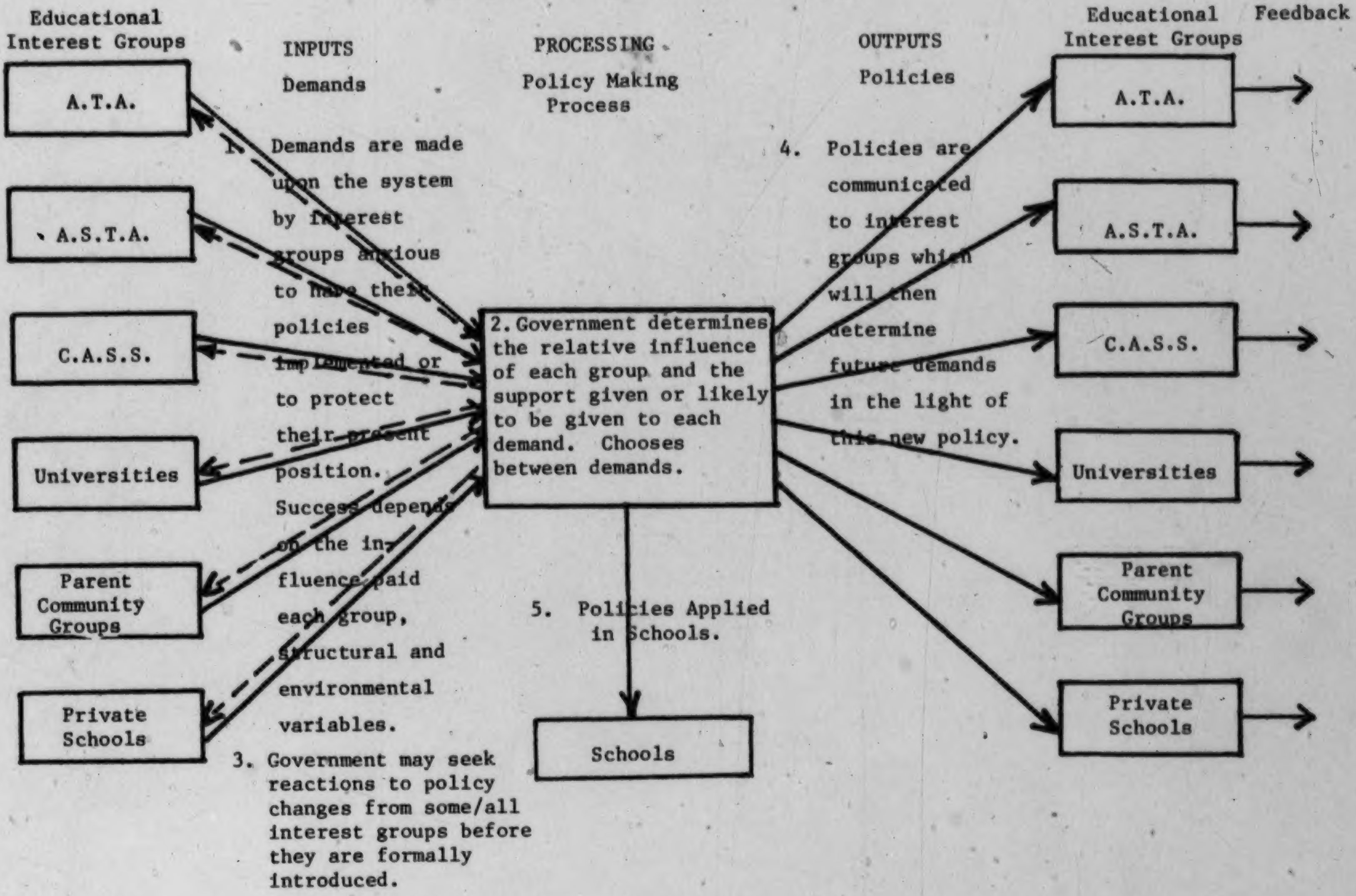

Educational Interest Groups
INPUTS
Demands
PROCESSING
Policy Making Process
OUTPUTS
Policies
Educational Interest Groups
Feedback
A.T.A.
A.S.T.A.
C.A.S.S.
Universities
Parent Community Groups
Private Schools
1. Demands are made upon the system by interest groups anxious to have their policies implemented or to protect their present position. Success depends on the influence paid each group, structural and environmental variables.
2. Government determines the relative influence of each group and the support given or likely to be given to each demand. Chooses between demands.
3. Government may seek reactions to policy changes from some/all interest groups before they are formally introduced.
4. Policies are communicated to interest groups which will then determine future demands in the light of this new policy.
5. Policies Applied in Schools.
Schools
A.T.A.
A.S.T.A.
C.A.S.S.
Universities
Parent Community Groups
Private Schools

Figure 6
A Systems Approach to Policy Making

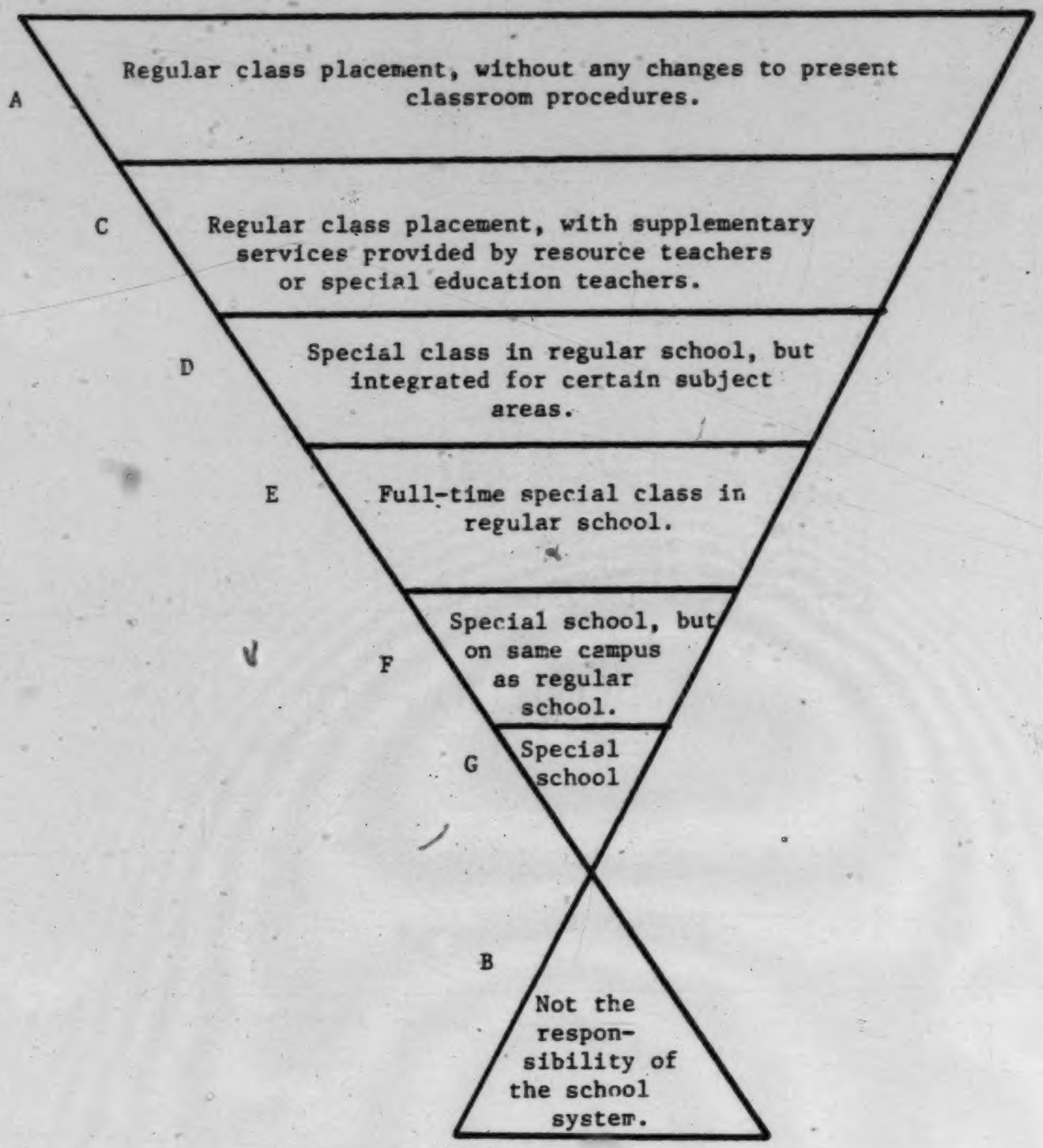

A
Regular class placement, without any changes to present classroom procedures.
C
Regular class placement, with supplementary services provided by resource teachers or special education teachers.
D
Special class in regular school, but integrated for certain subject areas.
E
Full-time special class in regular school.
F
Special school, but on same campus as regular school.
G
Special school
B
Not the responsibility of the school system.

Figure 7

Special Education Delivery Model

of this study.

## SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a review of literature on matters of relevance to this study, out of which has been developed the conceptual framework on which the study is based. This consists of a systems approach to policy making in which interest groups make demands upon the government according to the attitudes of their members. These demands are successful to the extent that they are seen as coming from influential groups which are knowledgeable about the subject fields in which they are operating. A model for the organization of special education services as used in the study is then presented.

# CHAPTER 3

# SPECIAL EDUCATION IN ALBERTA

This chapter examines the organization and administration of special education in the province of Alberta. Based on Gearheart's (1967:65) discussion of the study of special education programs conducted in 1960 by the Los Angeles County School Board, it is suggested that there are a number of essential components of a special education program. Although these are more applicable to the initial development of such a program, they are developed here to provide a convenient base for the analysis of existing programs and policies in Alberta. First, some general details of the organization of education in Alberta are given.

## GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION IN ALBERTA

Education in Alberta is administered by the provincial government and, under its control, by locally elected school boards or education committees. As Bergen (1976:36) suggested, the provincial government is responsible for the "interna" of education, such things as the certification of teachers, the development of curriculum guides and the authorization of programs of study. The local authorities have responsibility for the "externa" of education, which includes the employment and deployment of staff, the setting of teachers' working conditions and salaries, the transportation of students and the provision and maintenance of physical plant, supplies and equipment.

Two publicly supported school systems are in operation, a public school system and a separate school system, while there are also a number of private schools. The public school system is the one that was established when the district was first organized and it serves all residents until a separate school district is established. Separate school districts are set up largely on the basis of a division on religious lines between Protestant and Catholic groups. They are formed when requested by a majority of the smaller of the two groups within the existing public school district. Both systems receive the same level of government support and have the same access to local property taxation. Private schools operate outside of these two systems and receive a lower level of government funding.

The province is divided into approximately 140 school jurisdictions which vary in size from those in heavily populated urban areas such as Edmonton and Calgary to small boards operating one or two schools only. Jurisdictions are classified as: divisions, in which a number of public school districts have been combined together; counties, which are administered by a "Board of Education" subcommittee of the local government county council; or independent school districts. Divisions and districts are administered by locally elected boards of trustees.

An important aspect of the provincial role in education is the provision of funding. In 1975, approximately 75 per cent of educational finance was provided at the provincial level according to provincial guidelines. This means that, to quite a large extent, the Department of Education is able to establish the policies that will be implemented at the local level. This is discussed more fully later in this chapter.

The provincial Department of Education operates in an advisory capacity to school boards and their education officers; it also supervises the distribution and use of funds and the programs offered in schools, and maintains an evaluative role over the general effectiveness of the education system. It has five regional offices located in larger cities in the province at which are stationed curriculum, administrative and special education consultants to carry out these tasks. While a number of the large school jurisdictions are able to supplement the services offered by the regional offices, this is often not so with the smaller jurisdictions which thus rely heavily upon the consultants located at regional offices.

Figure 8 illustrates diagrammatically the organizational structure of education in Alberta.

## ORGANIZATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION FACILITIES

As observed above, there are three types of school systems providing educational facilities to children in the province of Alberta: public schools, separate schools, and private schools. Each of these also plays a part in the provision of special education facilities, together with the provincial Department of Education which operates one special school as noted below. The contribution of each is now discussed.

The provincial Department of Education operates a school for functionally deaf children in Edmonton. The superintendent of the school is responsible to the Director of Special Education in the Department of Education. The school provides the special services required by deaf children from throughout the province.

School boards, both public and separate, throughout the

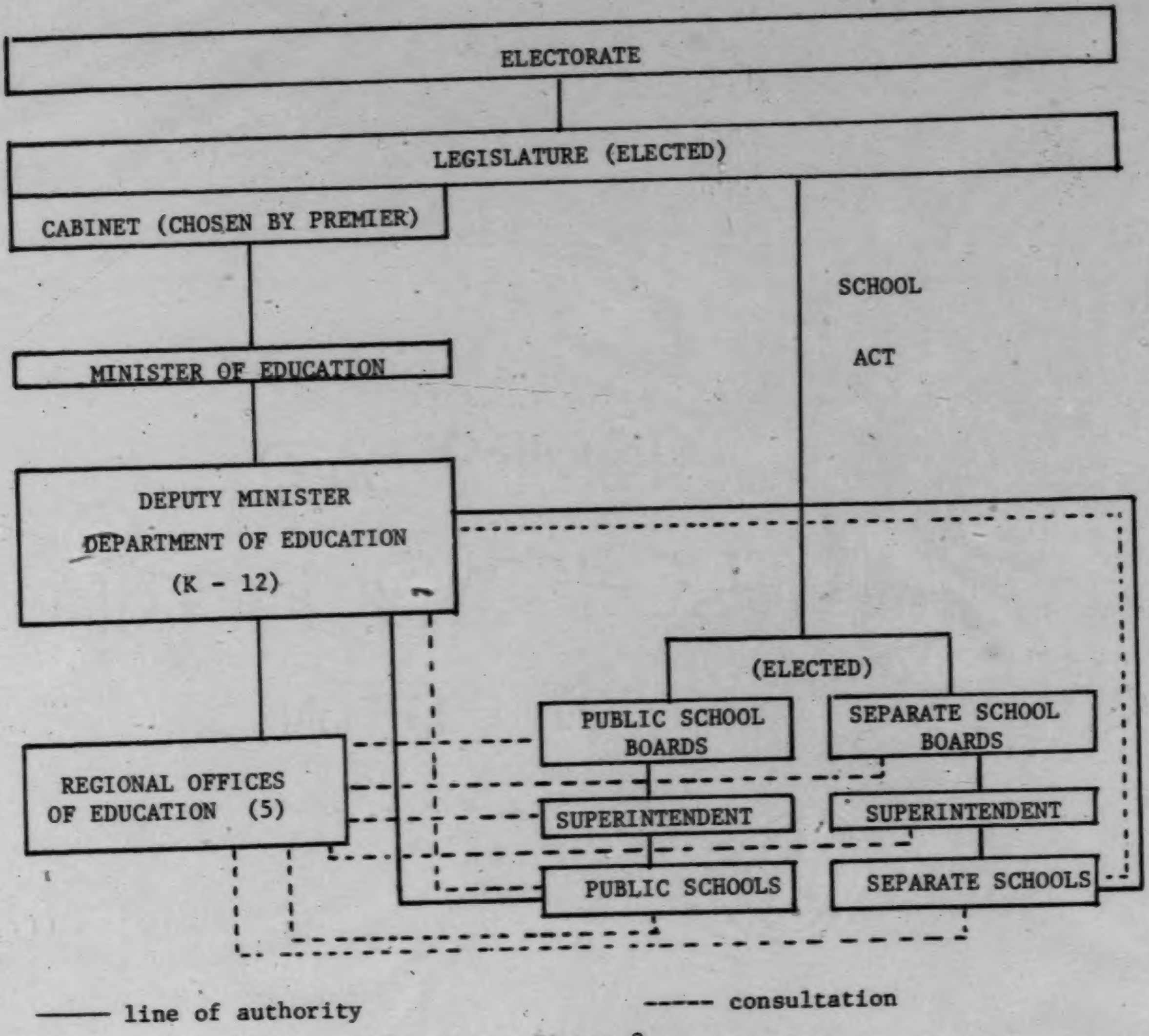

ELECTORATE
LEGISLATURE (ELECTED)
CABINET (CHOSEN BY PREMIER)
MINISTER OF EDUCATION
SCHOOL ACT
DEPUTY MINISTER DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (K - 12)
(ELECTED)
PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARDS
SEPARATE SCHOOL BOARDS
REGIONAL OFFICES OF EDUCATION (5)
SUPERINTENDENT
SUPERINTENDENT
PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SEPARATE SCHOOLS
line of authority
consultation

Figure 8

Organization of Education in Alberta
(Adapted from Bergen, 1976:37)

province operate special education programs to varying degrees according to the size of their jurisdiction and the local demand for services. On occasions these facilities are operated in conjunction with government departments or private organizations; for example, the Glenrose Hospital School in Edmonton is operated by the Edmonton Public School Board in conjunction with the provincial Department of Health.

Some school boards also provide instruction to children in their homes through visiting teachers working in cooperation with parents.

Private organizations operate schools for children with specific handicaps, usually for those that are severely handicapped. Examples are schools for trainable mentally retarded, autistic, seriously emotionally disturbed, and delinquent children, and for those with learning disabilities. Often these schools are in addition to facilities provided by school boards.

## PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

The operation of schools in Alberta is controlled by legislation under the Alberta Act (1905) and the Department of Education Act (1970), and by regulations embodied in the School Act (1970) as amended. Sections related to this study are now considered.

### Attendance

As pointed out in Chapter 1, there is no legislation in Alberta making attendance at school compulsory for exceptional children. The relevant section of the School Act stated:

> Section 133: Every child who has attained the age of six years at school opening date and who has not attained the age of 16 years is a pupil for the purposes of this Act, and unless excused for any of the reasons mentioned in section 134 shall attend a school over which a board has control.

Section 134 provides a number of reasons for which a child may be excused from attendance at school, including:

> Section 134:(2): A board may temporarily excuse from attendance in a regular classroom any pupil whose special educational needs in the opinion of an inspector or superintendent are of such a nature that regular classroom experience is not productive or is detrimental to the pupil or to the school, until such time as the board with the approval of the parent can arrange the needed special education through attendance in a special class

> or by entering the child in a special school or in any other suitable manner.

Thus, children cannot be forced to attend school if it is determined that no suitable programs are available for them. It is not clear if the board can enforce such an exclusion or only accept a request to this effect from a parent. However, it has recently been determined by the Alberta Supreme Court that school boards do have a responsibility to ensure that suitable programs are available for "any and all children with special needs who do not fit into a regular classroom" (Edmonton Journal, August 12, 1978). This court ruling required the Lamont County School Board to place a nine year old cerebral palsied girl in one of its classrooms or to enrol her at their expense in another school system without delay.

The effect of this court decision upon future provisions for exceptional children throughout the province of Alberta could be considerable, emphasing as it does the requirement upon school boards to ensure that all children receive a suitable education at the boards' expense.

## Mandatory Legislation

Despite the above court ruling, it still appears that there is no obligation on the part of school boards in Alberta to provide special education for all exceptional children themselves. Section 138(b) of the School Act stated that a board may:

> Provide special education by operating special schools or classrooms or by making a grant and sending pupils to an organization or agency approved by the Minister which provides special education.

Thus, legislation does not make mandatory the provision within the school systems of facilities to cater to the needs of exceptional children. Certainly, financial incentives encourage school boards to do so, but as Perkins (1974:10) pointed out these incentives can be withdrawn if considered politically expedient. Also, there is no mention in any legislation of the desirability of placing children in the least restrictive environment; specific reference is made only to special classes and special schools.

Alberta is therefore at this stage not requiring school boards to provide for the needs of all exceptional children themselves, although they must pay the total costs involved in any alternative form of school placement utilized to meet the needs of any particular child.

## AN OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN ALBERTA

An essential step in the establishment or operation of a special education program is the definition of the term itself. Emphasis, however, is not placed here on what special education means in a theoretical sense, but on how it is defined operationally in Alberta in terms of the programs offered. Hence, special education may or may not include remedial education, special programs for the gifted, or facilities for the severely handicapped.

The provincial Department of Education (1976(a):(1)) defined special educational services as those concerning the education of the handicapped, stating that:

> An educational handicap is one which does interfere significantly with a person's educational career . . . . and either excludes the pupil from certain parts of the program, or prevents the child from achieving generally at the same rate as his or her unhandicapped peers.

This approach is reflected in financial provisions adopted by the provincial government which make no provision for gifted children, for example. However, it is not binding upon local school boards, which may adopt their own approach to special educational programs.

The Edmonton Public School Board (1976:1) used the definition:

> Special education consists of educational programs and/or services designed to meet the needs of exceptional children . . . through compensating for the handicapping effects of various disabilities in as normal an environment as possible.

Their program is operationalized to include the gifted, to a small extent at least, as well as the impaired. In fact, most large city boards--and some others--provide programs for a wide range of exceptionality, although these may not always be adequate to cope with the demand.

In recent years, the trend towards providing school board facilities for all children has intensified. Sanche (1975:11) stated:

> Educational services for the trainable mentally retarded have been provided by associations for the mentally retarded . . . . More recently, however, local school boards have been taking greater responsibility for the provision of services . . . . Prior to 1969, no trainable mentally retarded children in Alberta were served by the public school systems. By 1972, one-third of all trainable mentally retarded pupils were served by public school systems.

The breakthrough, as stated by Sanche, came in 1969 when the Calgary Public School Board assumed responsibility for the education of trainable mentally retarded children in its district. This trend has intensified in recent years; the percentage of classes for these children provided by school systems compared to the total number of classes in operation increased from 33 percent in 1974-75 to 46 percent in 1975-76. (Alberta Education, 1976:179)

Despite this trend, approximately 50 percent of classes for trainable and dependent handicapped children in 1976 were provided by local associations. In some areas close to major centres, school boards may operate programs only for the mildly handicapped and transport other exceptional children to special schools in the cities. Programs available locally may then concentrate upon facilities for the educable mentally retarded and on resource rooms for children with learning disabilities.

Some children with severe or multiple handicaps obtain their education from outside the province, usually in either British Columbia or Ontario. Because facilities for the blind have not been readily available in Alberta, for example, a small number of children have been forced to attend residential schools outside the province for at least part of their education.

The operationalization of a special education program depends to a greater degree upon related educational policies at the provincial level and to a lesser degree on school district policies. Within the limits of government funding and overall policy, local school jurisdictions have discretion to determine the type of program implemented including whether or not exceptional children will be educated locally or transported to other centres. However, because local initiatives are heavily dependent upon overall government financial policy, the major decision-making for special education occurs at the provincial level.

## SPECIAL EDUCATION POLICY WITH REGARD TO FORMS OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT

Research quoted in Chapter 2 of this study indicated that no single system of providing special education services for exceptional children will meet the needs of all children, and that a continuum of services is probably necessary. In Alberta, an analysis of school systems reveals a wide diversity of facilities for exceptional children, but with an emphasis on segregated and semi-integrated facilities rather than integrated ones. Little pressure appears to have been exerted by parents or teachers to change this. Evidence for this generalization can be noted from a number of special education practices.

1. Financial assistance from the provincial government is provided on the basis of established special education teaching positions. The conditions under which these are established define the type of handicap, size of classes, and criteria for placement. Although the grants allow for integrated resource rooms in which special education teachers are available to help the exceptional child, they do not provide for full integration with normal children.

2. At least one group of children, the functionally deaf, is fully provided for at the provincial level. The Alberta School for the Deaf is a segregated school which in 1977 served 182 children who were handicapped by functional deafness. Slightly over half of this number lived in rural communities and were accommodated in boarding facilities provided by the school at no cost to parents. The remainder lived in Edmonton.

3. The Glenrose Hospital School is another example of a segregated facility operated by the Edmonton Public School Board in conjunction with the provincial Department of Health. This provides an opportunity for children who are physically and/or emotionally handicapped to receive special assistance, both physically and educationally, until their treatment is stabilized or they have learned to cope with their handicap. They are returned to their own homes and schools as soon as possible.

4. Private schools provide services to certain segregated

groups such as the trainable mentally retarded in some localities. For example, the Winnifred Stewart School in Edmonton is operated by the Edmonton Association for the Mentally Retarded, catering to 330 children in 1977. A careful screening process is used for all children accepted by the school, as multiply-handicapped children are not generally accepted. Other schools of a similar type are located throughout the province.

5. In larger centres such as Edmonton, school boards operate segregated schools for particular groups of exceptional children. The L.Y. Cairns Vocational School in Edmonton is an example of a segregated facility, providing in 1977 for the educational needs of 440 educable mentally retarded students aged from 12½ years to approximately 21 years.

6. Numerous examples of semi-integrated facilities can be cited; classes for children with hearing or visual impairments, and for those with learning disabilities, are situated throughout the province, and are usually integrated to a varying extent with normal classes while still maintaining their separate identities.

7. One of the most severe forms of segregation occurred in some rural counties close to major centres of population, where exceptional children were transported to those major centres rather than having programs provided for them at the local level. This certainly has some advantages, but it does increase their separation from normal children attending schools within the local jurisdiction.

Some children, nevertheless, are integrated into normal classes and receive additional help from special education teachers or consultants. As an example, some children who would normally be placed in an adaptation class for those with severe learning disabilities were placed in regular classes for most of the school day but spent one and a half hours each day working with a specialist teacher. Also, many children with hearing or visual impairments are placed in regular classes and receive additional assistance from itinerant teachers. Frequently, too, as noted earlier, physically handicapped children are returned to their own neighborhood school following a period at Glenrose.

Specific attempts are being made at the early childhood stage to provide integrated programs for exceptional children. In Calgary, for example, in 1977, about 40 children were placed in regular early childhood service programs, assisted by additional staff and help provided by the Division of Special Educational Services. (Calgary P.S.B., 1977:3)

The above information, as mentioned earlier, leads to a conclusion suggesting that, although minor attempts are being made to integrate exceptional children into regular classes, the main emphasis at this time in Alberta still lies on segregated facilities in special education. The way in which these facilities or programs are administered is now considered.

## PLACE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

As stated earlier, education in Alberta is administered both provincially and locally. It is therefore necessary to examine the administrative structure at both the provincial and local school board level in order to note the part played by special education in the overall administrative framework.

## The Provincial Level

Within the provincial Department of Education, all aspects of the special education program are supervised by the Director of Special Educational Services. According to the 1974 Annual Report of Alberta Education, the Special Educational Services Branch (1975:79) has responsibility for:

> General supervision over all aspects of special education, the education of children by the Alberta School for the Deaf, activities of the Supervisor of Counselling and Guidance, administration of the Learning Disabilities Fund, the regulation of private schools, and regulation of summer and extension programs in basic education by school boards.

A number of consultants in special education have been appointed by the provincial government. They are located at regional offices and are responsible to the Director of Field Services rather than the Director of Special Education for the day-to-day implementation of their duties. Thus the control of the work of these officers is integrated with that of officers working in other areas, producing an effective illustration of an overall integrated system approach.

Relevant parts of the organization chart of Alberta Education are shown in Figure 9.

## Local Jurisdictions

The extent of the administrative structure of local jurisdictions depends upon the size and resources of the school district. In some jurisdictions, the only administrative staff may be the superintendent and his deputy or assistant, while in others quite an elaborate administrative structure is found. Two examples are shown in Figure 10.

One major problem that occurs frequently concerns the division

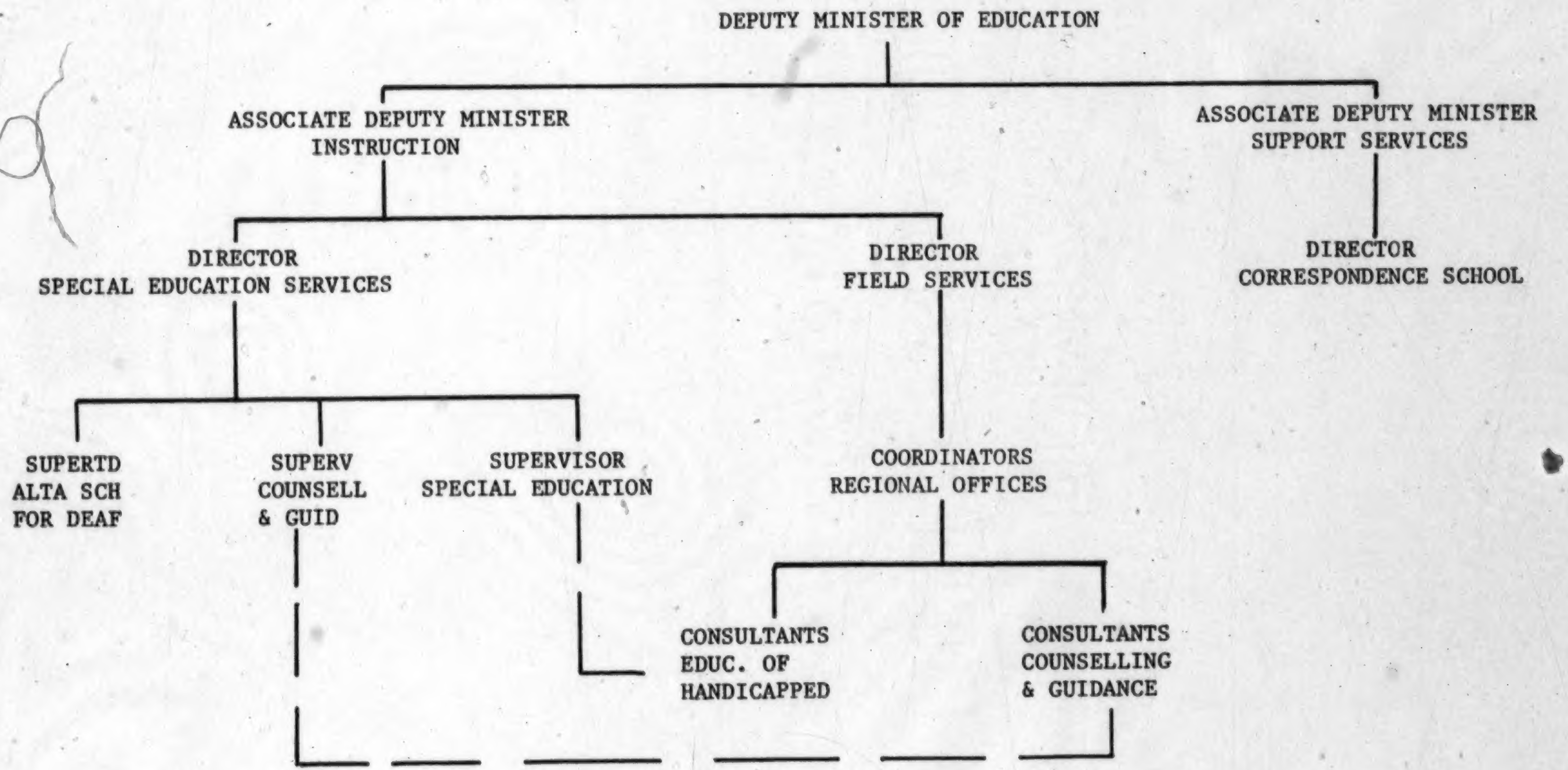

DEPUTY MINISTER OF EDUCATION
ASSOCIATE DEPUTY MINISTER INSTRUCTION
ASSOCIATE DEPUTY MINISTER SUPPORT SERVICES
DIRECTOR SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES
DIRECTOR FIELD SERVICES
DIRECTOR CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL
SUPERTD ALTA SCH FOR DEAF
SUPERV COUNSELL & GUID
SUPERVISOR SPECIAL EDUCATION
COORDINATORS REGIONAL OFFICES
CONSULTANTS EDUC. OF HANDICAPPED
CONSULTANTS COUNSELLING & GUIDANCE

Figure 9

Administrative Relationships, Department of Education, Alberta

Source: Department of Education, 1976(a):20.

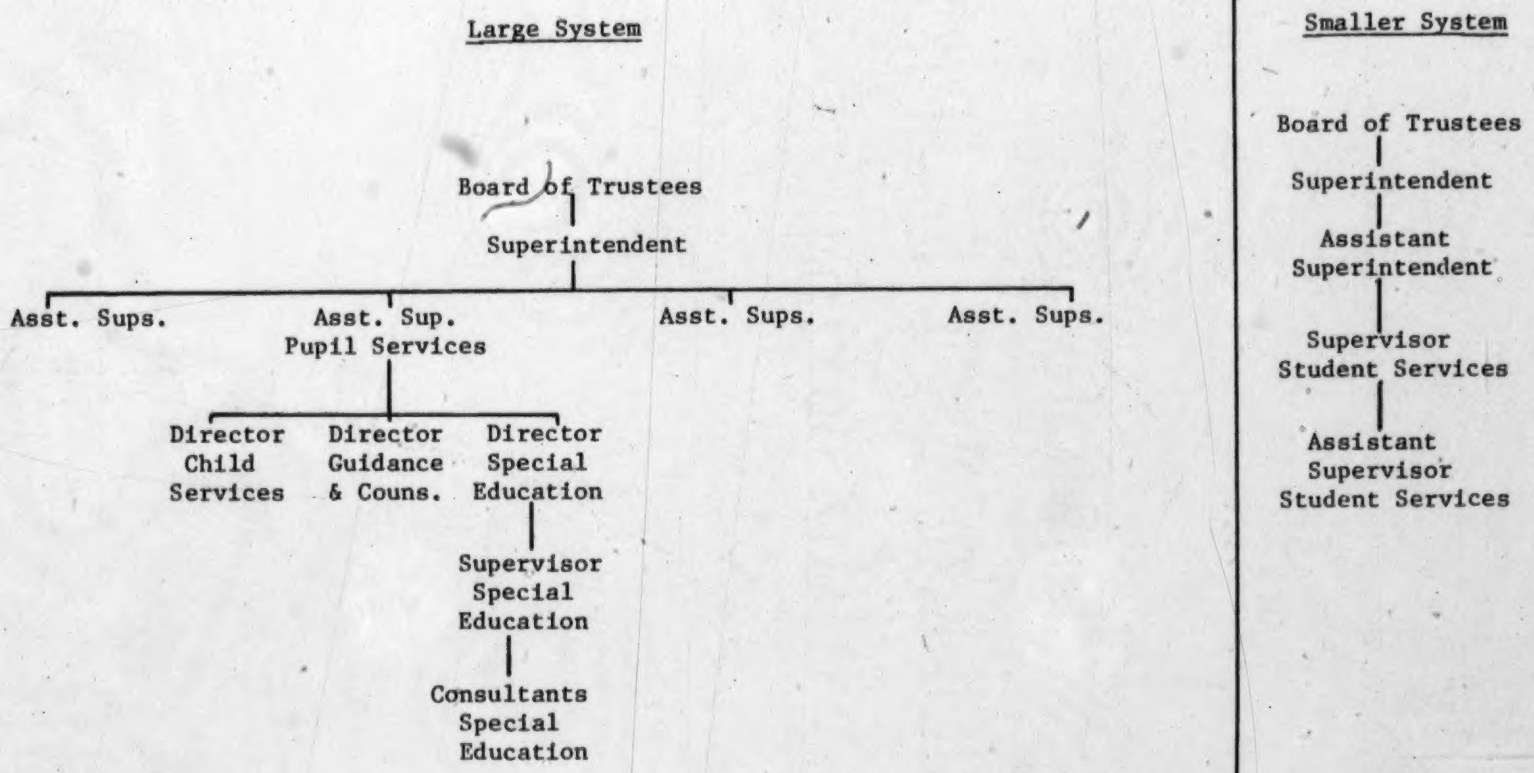

Large System
Board of Trustees
Superintendent
Asst. Sups.
Asst. Sup. Pupil Services
Asst. Sups.
Asst. Sups.
Director Child Services
Director Guidance & Couns.
Director Special Education
Supervisor Special Education
Consultants Special Education
Smaller System
Board of Trustees
Superintendent
Assistant Superintendent
Supervisor Student Services
Assistant Supervisor Student Services

Figure 10

Sample School District Organizations for Special Education of authority and control over special education classes between the central office and the school principal. In some situations, the school principal assumes little control over the administration of the special classes attached to his school other than the normal legal control over the welfare of the children. The running of the classes is left almost entirely to the teachers concerned, the classes functioning almost as schools within schools.

On other occasions, however, special classes did operate as integral parts of the school and were not differentiated administratively any more than was necessary. Yet, control over the location of facilities remained with the central office, as did the employment of staff. Principals were delegated some authority in determining the type of organizational structure used, but obtaining central office approval was still usually necessary.

## FINANCE

It was pointed out early in this chapter that the greatest proportion of school finance in Alberta is provided by way of grants from the provincial government. The distribution of sources of funding between the various agencies is shown in Figure 11, and are discussed below as they relate to the field of special education.

1. School Foundation Program Fund. This is the basic form of grant paid to all school boards for children entitled to attend their schools whether handicapped or not. The amounts paid by the provincial government under these regulations in 1977 were $938 per pupil in Grades 1 - VI, $1,030 per student in Grades VII - IX, and $1,220 per student in Grades X - XII. (Alberta Education, 1977(b):8)

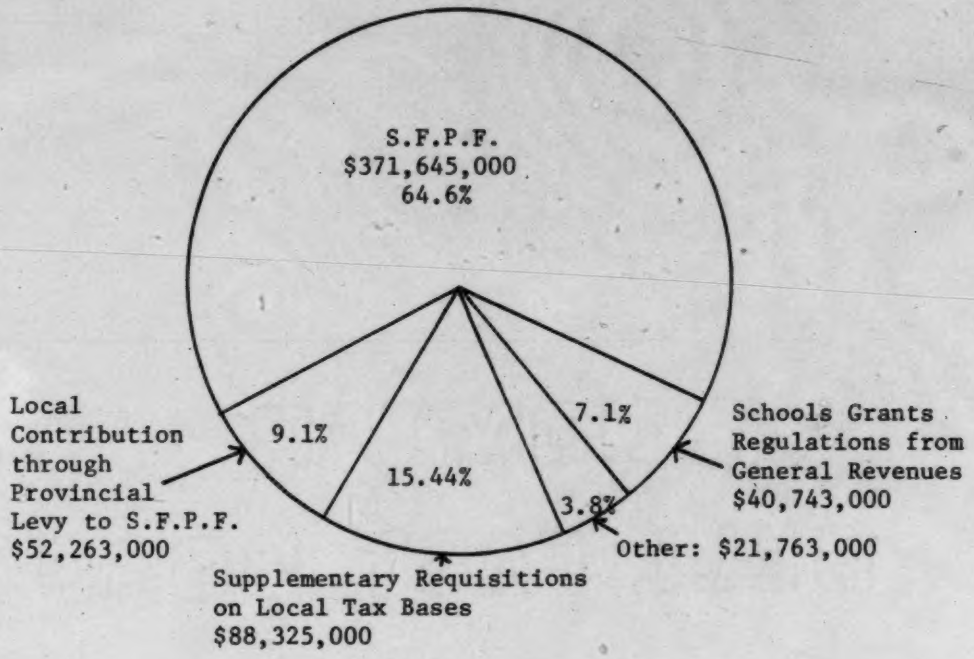


Figure 11

Sources of Educational Finance, 1975.

(Source: Minister's Advisory Committee on School Finance, 1975 Report)

2. Special Education Grants. Under the terms of the School Grants Regulations, amounts additional to the above are paid to school boards according to the number and type of approved "Special Education Teaching Positions." These are the means by which the additional costs of special education are provided for, and are divided into Type A and Type B positions. (Department of Education, 1977(a):6) These can be differentiated as:

> Type A teaching positions are considered to be those which are more severe, and therefore are more costly to establish and maintain. Type B teaching positions are those which deal with milder kinds of handicap and therefore are not so costly.

Payment is thus made for each position established and approved according to the type of exceptional child served. The amounts payable in 1977 are shown in Table 1. The number of positions financed by the provincial government over the three-year period 1974-75 to 1976-77 are shown in Table 2. There was a significant overall increase in the number of positions operating in 1975-76 over the previous year, but the increase in the following year was only marginal. This was because the government placed a freeze on the number of new positions that could be established in February, 1976. More recently, however, one hundred new positions have been approved.

Several points can be observed from a study of the two tables, including the following: (a) there were significant increases in the number of positions in the fields of speech disorders, the trainable mentally retarded, braille-using, deaf, and language deficient, and in the establishment of resource rooms and itinerant positions. In most cases the majority of increases occurred in the 1975-76 period; (b) decreases occurred in the areas of the learning disabled, homebound and to a lesser extent the educable mentally retarded; (c) the shift in the type of facilities provided may reflect a shift from segregated to more integrated programs for exceptional children wherever possible; and (d) there were no new type B positions permitted after 5th February, 1976.

The information contained in Tables 1 and 2 can be combined to give an analysis of the total amount of finance provided through the establishment of special education teaching positions. This is done in Table 3. The grants are paid to school boards as part of the School Grants Regulations, which also provide special-purpose grants for items such as early childhood services, special reading materials, and

TABLE 1

RATES PAYABLE FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING POSITIONS, 1977

| Speciality of Position | Rate Per Position |
|---|---|
| Educable mentally retarded | $ 9,300 |
| Learning disabled | 9,300 |
| Socially maladjusted | 9,300 |
| Resource rooms | 9,300 |
| Language deficit | 9,300 |
| Trainable mentally retarded | 12,000 |
| Institutional | 12,000 |
| Homebound | 12,000 |
| Severely learning disabled | 12,800 |
| Hard of hearing | 12,800 |
| Low vision | 12,800 |
| Speech disorders | 12,800 |
| Specified special school | 12,800 |
| Braille | 14,700 |
| Deaf | 14,700 |

Source: Department of Education, 1977 (b):2

## TABLE 2

## NUMBER OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING POSITIONS, 1974-75 to 1976-77

| Speciality of Positions | 1974-75 | 1975-76 | 1976-77 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Educable mentally retarded | 241 | 238 | 243 |
| Itinerant | 1 | 21 | 21 |
| Learning disabled | 203 | 167 | 152 |
| Socially maladjusted | - | 7 | 4 |
| Resource room | 252 | 442 | 446 |
| Language deficit | - | 24 | 24 |
| Trainable mentally retarded | 55 | 88 | 94 |
| Institutional | 140 | 154 | 168 |
| Homebound | 15 | 12 | 11 |
| Severely learning disabled | 13 | 18 | 22 |
| Hard of hearing | 16 | 16 | 18 |
| Low vision | 8 | 9 | 9 |
| Speech disorders | 1 | 6 | 20 |
| Specified special school | 51 | 51 | 53 |
| Braille | 1 | 3 | 3 |
| Deaf | 0 | 4 | 7 |
| Totals | 997 | 1260 | 1294 |
| Percentage increases | | 29% | 2.7% |

Source: Department of Education. Special Education Services Branch:1977.

payments to private schools. The total amount of these grants in 1975-76 was nearly $61 million dollars. (Alberta Education, 1976:176)

TABLE 3

FINANCE PROVIDED FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING POSITIONS, 1976-77

| Speciality of Position | Rate | Amount |
|---|---|---|
| Educable mentally retarded | 8500 | $ 2,066,000 |
| Itinerant | 8500 | 179,000 |
| Learning Disabled | 8500 | 1,292,000 |
| Socially Maladjusted | 8500 | 34,000 |
| Resource Rooms | 8500 | 3,791,000 |
| Language Deficit | 8500 | 204,000 |
| Trainable mentally retarded | 10900 | 1,025,000 |
| Institutional | 10900 | 1,831,000 |
| Homebound | 10900 | 120,000 |
| Severely learning disabled | 11600 | 255,000 |
| Hard of hearing | 11600 | 209,000 |
| Low vision | 11600 | 104,000 |
| Speech Disorders | 11600 | 232,000 |
| Specified Special School | 11600 | 615,000 |
| Braille | 13400 | 40,000 |
| Deaf | 13400 | 94,000 |
| Totals | | 12,090,000 |

3. Payments for Outside Agencies. Where a school board is unable to provide a program for a child who is trainable mentally retarded, who has a severe learning disability or who is socially maladjusted, the provincial government will make grants to the school board in accordance with the rates shown in Table 4. The board can

then make arrangements with a private agency to provide educational facilities for that child. Rates may be varied according to special circumstances.

TABLE 4

GRANTS PAID TO BOARDS FOR OUTSIDE AGENCIES, 1977

| Age of Person on September 1st | Amount Per Person<br>TMR | <br>SLD | <br>SM |
|---|---|---|---|
| a) at least 5 years 6 months but less than 12 years | $2190 | 2790 | 1650 |
| b) at least 12 years but less than 15 years | 2280 | 2880 | 1750 |
| c) at least 15 years but less than 24 years | 2470 | 3070 | 1930 |
| d) 24 years and older | 1235 | 1535 | 965 |

Source: Department of Education, 1977(b):4

TMR = Trainable mentally retarded
SLD = Severely learning disabled
SM = Socially maladjusted

4. Capital Works. The provincial government also paid in 1977 to local school boards, a sum equal to 90 percent of any contribution made by the board to an agency or organization which provided for the board, educational facilities for children who were classified as trainable mentally retarded or severely learning disabled.

5. Early Childhood Services. Grants are provided for the operation of early childhood facilities for handicapped children, including those living in disadvantaged areas. These grants are paid for all children, but increased amounts are paid for the exceptional.

Rates operating in 1977 are shown in Table 5. Payments are made to whatever organizations provide the services.

6. Learning Disabilities Fund. This fund provides grants to any board or boards "For the purpose of diagnosing or assisting pupils with perceptual or learning disorders." (Alberta Education, 1976(a):29). It did not apply, however, to schools in the Peace River region or other areas where the Department of Education provided these services. The grant paid in 1977 was $16.50 per pupil, with a maximum grant of $100,000 per school jurisdiction. Therefore, only boards with a pupil enrollment below 6,000 received the full per-pupil rate.

TABLE 5

GRANTS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD SERVICES, 1977

| Category of Child | Rate Per Child |
|---|---|
| a) Handicapped Children | |
| i) Mentally retarded child | 960 |
| ii) Blind and visually impaired | 960 |
| iii) Hearing handicapped | 1190 |
| iv) Physically handicapped | 1060 |
| v) Emotionally disturbed | 1190 |
| vi) Child with learning disabilities | 980 |
| vii) Severely handicapped child | 1200 |
| b) Children residing in disadvantaged area | 630 |
| c) Other children | 470 |

Source: Department of Education, 1977(b):4

7. Educational Opportunities Fund. Grants are made from this fund by the provincial government (Planning and Research, 1977(c):2) in two forms; EOF (Remedial) grants are provided "to support elementary school remedial instruction projects, particularly resource rooms," while EOF (Compensatory) grants are provided to "school systems which have met criteria which include low assessment and disadvantagedness."

The EOF (Compensatory) grants in particular, together with other forms of finance for special education, have resulted in a situation where the amount of service being provided for exceptional children in remote areas of the province exceeds that of more favorable locations. The Alberta Special Education Study (1977(c):7) stated:

> "Support to the more disadvantaged jurisdictions has permitted them to offer a higher (externally supported) level of special education service than the more advantaged jurisdictions. This has not been accomplished at the expense of the more advantaged jurisdictions, which also enjoy a high level of service supported through the more traditional special education funding."

A total of almost $3 million dollars was provided for EOF grants in 1975.

8. Transport Subsidy. A special subsidy was paid to school boards to cover the cost of transporting exceptional children to and from school. In 1977, this was the lesser of either $3.60 per pupil per day or the actual costs incurred. If a child who would otherwise have to be transported is required to live away from his home, a boarding allowance is paid. In 1977, this was at a rate of $4.25 per pupil per day. (Alberta Education, 1977(b):8).

9. Supplementary Requisitions. As stated earlier, most of the finance for education is provided from provincial sources. The supplementary requisition is, however, raised from locally-collected

property taxes at a mill rate set by the local school authority. It can be used to provide additional funds for education over and above those provided by the provincial government and in particular to cover local educational needs and priorities, including those in the area of special education.

These, then, are the main methods by which the costs of special education are reimbursed by the provincial government of Alberta to the local jurisdictions.

## THE ALBERTA SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDY

This study was carried out by the Planning and Research Branch of Alberta Education during the Summer of 1977, under the corodination of H.C. Rhodes. The Report is subtitled, "Organizing Special Education for Moderately handicapped pupils in Alberta Schools: A Study of Selected Administrative Arrangements and Support Services."

Five main questions were investigated in the study (Executive Summary, Planning and Research, 1977 (c):1-3). These were:

Part I What are the factors associated with (1) the amount of special education services provided by Alberta school systems, and (2) the equity of the distribution of services?

Part II How do resource rooms, segregated special classrooms and regular classrooms compare in special education for children with handicaps?

Part III What are the perceptions of Alberta Special Class teachers and their administrators of their roles as a resource to regular class teachers?

Part IV What are the sources, frequency and adequacy of professional support services used by special education teachers and their administrators?

Part V: In what ways do system and nature of administrative structures affect provisions of special education services?

Much of the material in the report, and many of the recommendations made, are based upon an extensive review of research findings and literature relevant to the study. Other sections of the report analyze results obtained on a questionnaire completed by special education teachers and school administrators.

Many of the findings do not have direct relevance to this study and so will not be discussed here. However, several of the recommendations made are of considerable importance because, if implemented, they will indicate a marked shift in government policy. The most significant recommendation of this study is in Part II of the Report. After recommending the continuation of Type B Special Education Teaching Positions, the Report suggested that a measure of flexibility be introduced into these positions which would allow special education teachers to be used as consultants to help regular classroom teachers in providing for the needs of exceptional children who had been integrated with their regular classes. The Report (1977(c):2) stated:

> Sufficient evidence exists to support the recommendation that these Type B grants be permitted at the option of school systems, to be used to employ special class teachers, perhaps full-time, as a resource to regular classroom teachers.

A number of conditions were placed (p. 28) upon the employment of teacher-consultants. These were: (i) that the requisite numbers of moderately handicapped pupils be identified and placed on individualized programs in regular classes; (ii) that the present requirements be retained with respect to the number of pupils for each full-time equivalent special education teacher Type B position (Consultant-teacher position); (iii) that the pupils be selected and placed in regular class according to existing criteria for special class including individual evaluations by competent professionals; and (iv) that the positions referred to in (ii) be staffed with resource teachers in their remedial instruction of only those pupils identified according to (iii).

The recommendation overcomes a number of the problems mentioned earlier in connection with the limitations placed upon local expenditure of government funds for special education. No longer need the emphasis be placed upon the establishment of special education teaching positions per se; special education teachers can be engaged as resource persons to aid the regular classroom teacher in providing an effective program for exceptional children within the regular class. This is similar to the role suggested by Newcomer (1977:155) mentioned earlier in this study.

This recommendation has an important effect also upon the significance of the present study, for if government policies are to be changed in this manner, then much of the responsibility for providing teacher-consultants as part of an integrated special education program will be placed upon the local jurisdictions. School superintendents and trustees will be faced with having to make decisions as to how they will implement this recommendation, and the attitudes shown by the groups included in this study could be indicative of the direction in which they will move.

The conditions placed upon the recommendation also indicate an emphasis upon the need for the individualization of instructional programs and a carefully designed pupil identification system. They will ensure that children placed in regular classes do receive an effective education and that special education teachers acting as consultants do actually confine their operations to assisting classroom teachers to cope with the problems of exceptional children.

However, the Report contains recommendations only and to date no decisions have been announced by the Alberta Legislature concerning the implementation of these recommendations as public policy in Alberta. The attitudes indicated by the present study could provide additional information useful to the government in making a decision to accept or reject the recommendations.

Other conclusions drawn in the Report indicated that the level of funding for special education in Alberta was achieving its purposes, that the form of school placement used for exceptional children was not a significant determinant of the progress they made at school and that special programs should be instituted to train teachers to carry out the new special education role of teacher-consultants.

## SUMMARY

This chapter has indicated the ways in which special education policies are administered and financed in the province of Alberta. The main finding is that a comprehensive system of special education is in operation, and that this system has traditionally placed an emphasis upon the segregated special class or school as the main delivery system for meeting the needs of exceptional children. Recent trends, however, indicate that there is a movement towards the adoption of the resource room concept, particularly for children with learning disabilities and mild exceptionalities. The report of the recent Alberta Special Education Study is also discussed. This report made a number of significant recommendations for policy changes in the area of special education. The most significant of them for this study was that provision should be made under the conditions applying to Type B Special Education Teaching Position grants for the employment of consultant teachers to assist regular classroom teachers in providing for the special needs of exceptional children.

# CHAPTER 4

# RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study attempted to gather data concerning the attitudes of members of a number of interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children, the level of knowledge of special education shown by respondents, and the extent to which respondents perceive the interest groups to be influential in educational policy making. The main instrument used for gathering data was a questionnaire referred to as the "School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children." The construction of this instrument is described and information about the sample used and the statistical techniques associated with the analysis of data are provided. Details of a pilot study conducted are also given in this chapter.

## RESEARCH PROCEDURES

### The Questionnaire as a Research Instrument

A great deal of research, particularly in the social and behavioral sciences, is carried out using the questionnaire as the main data-gathering device. Sometimes it is used in conjunction with other types of data-collecting techniques such as the interview; at other times it is used alone. There are a number of advantages in using the questionnaire, but also some problems that must be kept in mind when interpreting data obtained in this way.

According to Miller (1970:76-77), the questionnaire "permits wide coverage at minimum expense, wider geographical contact, larger and possibly more representative sample, more convenient answers and a sense of privacy to the respondent."

There is no doubt that it is far easier and more economical to obtain the sample for a study by writing to people than it is to visit each of them, particularly if they are widely scattered throughout a province or country. Indeed, probably it is only through the use of the questionnaire that such samples are even possible. The size of the sample itself is another factor that is determined to a significant extent by the data-gathering technique; if interviews are to be used, the sample usually must be small; if a questionnaire, then it can be many times larger.

The questionnaire also has the advantage that it is impersonal and anonymous. Some respondents may be prepared to indicate on an unsigned questionnaire form, information that they would not be willing to divulge in a face-to-face interview, hence the questionnaire is able to research subjects that may not be able to be investigated using other techniques. Because the respondents know that they cannot be identified, they may be prepared to answer questions that they would not answer in other situations.

The questionnaire, as well as requiring less time of the researcher, often also needs less time on the part of the respondent. An interview can probably not achieve very much in under an hour, particularly if good rapport first has to be established between the interviewer and the interviewee. On the other hand, a well-constructed questionnaire may be completed in as little as fifteen minutes.

Another benefit of the questionnaire format, particularly if it contains mainly "closed" questions, is that responses are easy to categorize and analyze statistically. All responses occur within a pre-planned range, and can be transferred to punch cards or other forms of mechanical data-sorting equipment without any difficulty.

Further, Fox (1969:548) pointed out that it is possible, using a questionnaire, to standardize the instructions to which the participants are asked to respond, because they are established as part of the questionnaire. Thus all respondents are responding to the same stimuli.

However, the questionnaire format is also subject to a number of serious weaknesses.

The first and most serious weakness is that the response obtained is usually limited. It is easy to send out five thousand questionnaires; it is much more difficult to get back this number, or even a high proportion of them. Questionnaires are usually unsolicited, and like a lot of other unsolicited mail may simply be placed in the wastepaper basket. Yet, it is one of the aims of the researcher to obtain as high a percentage of returns as possible. In this regard, Hillway (1969:35) suggested a return response ranging from 65 percent to 90 percent was good; Good (1972:236) indicated that an average of approximately 70 percent was found in a large number of university studies he surveyed, while Travers (1969:199) suggested that the usual rate of return was between 20 percent and 30 percent, which on rare occasions reached 40 percent. Engelhart (1972:97) wanted a return rate of 90 percent, while Kerlinger (1965:397) regarded this problem, together with the problem that responses cannot be checked, as being "Serious enough to make the mail questionnaire worse than useless, especially in highly sophisticated hands."

The reason that non-response to questionnaires is significant is that it destroys the random nature of the original sample and introduces qualities in the part-sample that were not necessarily in the original selection. For example, a study by Wallace (1954:40-52) showed that the people who responded to one questionnaire also responded to others; that they were better educated than those who did not respond, but were not significantly different in terms of socio-economic status. Thus it seems that only certain types of people respond to questionnaires; those who do are different in some respects--often unknown--to those who do not, and thus the sample that responds is different to the sample that does not.

One way to solve this problem is to interview non-respondents, or a small group of them, to find out why they did not participate, and the responses they would have made had they done so. If their responses are not significantly different to those made by the group that did respond initially, then it can be claimed that the sample that responded is representative of the total sample.

Hillway (1969:34-35) suggested a number of other problems inherent in the use of questionnaires. These include:

1. It is difficult to avoid phrasing questions which indicate the personal preferences or bias of the researcher.

2. Weaknesses in the design of questionnaires can cause respondents to be careless in their answers or to answer incorrectly because they cannot follow complex or ambiguous instructions.

3. Personal bias on the part of the respondents may cause them to misinterpret or misread instructions or questions.

4. Because frequently the range of responses is limited, the respondent may be antagonized because he would have liked to give different information about his own experiences or else he does not fit into the discrete categories given. One way around this is to use open questions, but then the problems of analyzing data and the amount of time required to respond become significant.

5. It is difficult to phrase questions and responses that will fit the experience of all people in a large sample; unforeseen complications may arise to make the form difficult for any one person to complete.

6. The researcher using a questionnaire is limited in his interaction with the subjects to the actual questionnaire, which is often his only link with the subject. The researcher cannot follow-up statements made by the subject that appear to contradict earlier statements, or request clarification about a response, as can be done in an interview. He must accept whatever has been written without further clarification.

7. Length is another problem. To be attractive to a respondent, the questionnaire needs to be short and simple; to be beneficial to the researcher, it needs to yield useful information. Rummel (1964:128-129) stated:

> However, if it seems necessary to have a long questionnaire to secure adequate information upon which to base valid conclusions, it should be developed to the length needed even though the percentage of returns is likely to be small . . . . The length of a questionnaire should be dependent entirely upon the extensiveness of the data required and should not be controlled by the expected number of returns.

Good (1972:226-227) suggested that a further disadvantage of both the questionnaire and interview techniques was that "They intrude as a foreign element into the social setting they seek to describe and that they create as well as measure attitudes."

Nevertheless, despite the problems discussed, the questionnaire continues to be used extensively as a data-gathering instrument. In this study, it is used so that a province-wide sample of interest group members can be included, and for reasons of simplicity of analysis of results. The particular problem of non-return of questionnaires will be considered later in this chapter.

## Instrumentation

The study included the use of two questionnaires, one of which was designed to provide information about the main aspects of the study and was called the "School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children." The other was intended to give details about each of the organizations included in the study and was called the "Organization/Agency Information Schedule."

### The School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children

This schedule* was developed to provide the information required for the main part of the study. The full questionnaire is included as Appendix A and has four parts. Of these, three are common to all groups in the study, while Part I was developed in two forms, Form I and Form II.

Part I was designed to provide relevant personal and background information about each of the respondents. Form I was administered to members of groups in the sample with some background in teaching, including regular classroom teachers, special education teachers, school superintendents, and university professors. Form II was given to members of other interest groups such as parent groups and school trustees. Questions asked varied only slightly between the two forms, mainly on matters dealing with the occupation of the respondent and the amount of special education experience or training.

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*Good (1972:226) suggested that the two terms "schedule" and "questionnaire" can be used interchangeably, and this practice is adopted in this study.

Part II of the schedule was adapted from the "Classroom Integration Inventory" developed by Stern (Haring et al., 1958). This inventory formed part of a study of changes that occurred in the interaction between teachers and exceptional children after a course designed to increase the knowledge of teachers about exceptional children. There were two other sections to the study, a General Information Inventory and an Activities Index. The first two sections have been adapted for use in the present study.

The Classroom Integration Inventory contained 60 descriptions of exceptional children similar to the ones in this study, and teachers were asked to place the children in one of five forms of school placement. Results were scored numerically to give a total integration index. The General Information Index contained 100 questions about special education in which respondents were asked to select the appropriate answer. In the study, responses given before a special course in the study of exceptional children were compared with those given at the end of the course.

Respondents in the present study were asked to read 20 short descriptive statements, each describing a particular type of exceptional child. The statements used were either adapted from those given by Stern or developed especially for this study. An example is:

12. Hugh eventually mutilates everything that gets into his hands; his books are marked and torn, his desk scratched and scarred, and he has broken several windows by throwing stones. Several times he has injured other children, and on one occasion threw a baseball bat at the teacher.

The types of exceptional children depicted in the statements are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6

TYPES OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN INCLUDED IN STUDY

| Item No. | Type of Exceptionality |
|---|---|
| 1 | Gifted, with minor behavior problems |
| 2 | Severely mentally retarded, trained; supervision problem |
| 3 | Severely physically handicapped; needs expensive equipment and supervision |
| 4 | Mildly mentally retarded; minor behavior problem |
| 5 | Delinquent/socially maladjusted; disrupts class |
| 6 | Hearing impaired; slow progress |
| 7 | Serious speech defect |
| 8 | Severely learning disabled; no problem in class |
| 9 | Deaf |
| 10 | Heart abnormality; general weakness |
| 11 | Learning disabled; behavior problem |
| 12 | Emotionally disturbed |
| 13 | Blind |
| 14 | Epileptic |
| 15 | Visually impaired |
| 16 | Mildly mentally retarded; withdrawn |
| 17 | Multiply handicapped |
| 18 | Learning disabled; mild physical problems |
| 19 | Gifted, artistic |
| 20 | Mildly physically handicapped |

Respondents were asked to read each of the statements and then place the child into one of seven different forms of school settings, according to what they considered to be the most appropriate for that particular child. The forms of school placement given as alternatives were adapted from the service models developed by Deno (1970), Foxcroft (1972), and Gearheart and Weishahn (1976). They were:

A. The child should be fully integrated into a regular class appropriate to his age without any changes to present classroom procedures.
B. The child is not the responsibility of the school system at all; parents should have to make use of private schools or institutions for the exceptional, or keep the child at home.
C. The child should be placed in a regular class appropriate to his age, from where he would receive necessary supplementary instructional assistance from a resource teacher or special education teacher for no more than half of each day.
D. The child should be placed in a special class within a regular school, but would be integrated into a regular class for subjects such as art, music, or physical education for no more than half of each day.
E. The child should be placed in a special class within a regular school and remain in that class for the whole of each day, mixing with children from regular classes in the playground and in certain whole school activities only.
F. The child should be placed in a separate special school designed solely to meet the needs of exceptional children, but one that is built on the same campus as a regular school. Both schools would share the same sporting facilities and some mixing of the children would take place on an incidental basis. The campus school may serve a number of surrounding regular schools.
G. The child should be placed in a separate special school especially designed to meet the needs of exceptional children, the school being located in a central position where it can serve the needs of a large part of the school district.

Part II was used to obtain information about the attitudes of respondents towards the school placement of exceptional children. Responses were indicated on a separate answer sheet by circling the appropriate letter. The letters were allocated numerical scores in the following manner according to the degree of separation from the regular classroom situation: A = 1, B = 7; C = 2, D = 3, E = 4, F = 5, and G = 6. In this way, information was obtained about the preferred forms of placement on each individual item, and a total mean score obtained as an overall measure of prefered school placement.

Part III of the Schedule was intended to investigate the amount of knowledge possessed by respondents in the field of special education (Subproblem 3). This section was adapted from the General Information Inventory referred to earlier, but contained twenty items formulated after a study of objective-type examination papers set in various undergraduate special education courses as a recognized Canadian university, and from other material prepared especially for this study. The items required knowledge of broad special education concepts and of the situation concerning special education facilities presently existing in Alberta, but in some cases they required a more specialized knowledge that might be expected from those who, because of a special interest or experience in the area, had pursued study or individual research into some of the concepts. An example of this latter type is:

> 6. The Cascade Model is a plan for providing an effective program of facilities for exceptional children in as integrated setting as possible.
>
> TRUE FALSE DON'T KNOW

Respondents were asked to indicate if they believed each statement to be true or false, or to respond with "Don't Know" if they were not sure. They were requested not to guess any answers. Another instruction given at the start of this section requested respondents to use only their present level of knowledge and not to look up any answers.

Part III was scored simply by adding the number of correct responses to give a total indication of the level of knowledge. This was then compared with scores achieved on Part II of the schedule to ascertain if there was any relationship between the level of knowledge and the type of preferred school placement.

Part IV of the schedule was designed to give information about the perceived level of influence of each group over educational policy making (Subproblem 4). In Section (a), respondents were provided with a list of interest groups and asked to indicate the amount of influence they believed each of the groups had over educational policy making. Responses were to be indicated using a five-point scale similar to one developed by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967); this scale is set out below:

1. Little or no influence
2. Some influence
3. Quite a bit of influence
4. A great deal of influence
5. A very great deal of influence

Groups were ranked according to the mean level of influence accorded to them by all participants. Section (b) asked respondents to indicate the level of perceived influence on the specific policy issue of the school placement of exceptional children, using a slightly different list of interest groups. The same procedures were used as are indicated above.

The degree of influence for each group indicated on Section (a) was related to the level of institutionalization of the groups, while the degree of influence shown in Section (b) was related to the amount of knowledge indicated in Part III of the schedule.

In summary then, the School Placement Schedule was used to provide information concerning the attitudes of interest group members to the school placement of exceptional children, the amount of knowledge they had, and the relative influence of the groups as perceived by group members. Data were gathered on all of these aspects using the questionnaire format.

ii) Organization/Agency Information Schedule

A second questionnaire was developed to obtain information concerning the structure and objectives of each of the groups included in the study; this is included as Appendix B. The questionnaire was sent to executive directors or chairpersons of the groups. It was more "open" in style than the Placement Schedule because this questionnaire was seeking to obtain only general information about each of the groups involved and the total number of responses was much smaller.

The information schedule contained questions relating to the number of members, size of professional staff, types of policies, and methods by which influence was exerted by each of the groups upon the government. The type of questions asked was influenced by the typology of interest groups developed by Pross (1975) and outlined earlier in this study. Sample questions included:

6. Reason for formation of group?

9. To what extent is the day-to-day control of the organization in the hands of professional staff employed on a full-time basis?

14. Has your organization any clearly defined policies in the area of special education, and if so, what are they?

18. Please check (✓) the appropriate response:
Would you say that in the majority of cases, your group's dealings with the government:
    i) are of a confrontation type, where the group is publicly criticizing the government because of its lack of implementation of the organization's policies? ( )
    ii) are sometimes of a confrontation type, but often involve discussions with government officials over organizational policies on specific matters? ( )

iii) are carried out through regular contact with government officials in areas of common concern? ( )
iv) are carried out mainly through organizational representation on advisory boards working directly with the government? ( )

Where considered appropriate or necessary, the information provided from the information schedule was supplemented by personal and/or telephone interviews.

## THE SAMPLE

The sample for the study was drawn from those interest groups in the province of Alberta that make up the "relatively stable group of actors who have a continuing concern with public school policy and who interact on a regular basis." (Mazzoni and Campbell, 1976:3) In the local setting, this was interpreted as including (1) the Alberta Teachers' Association, (2) the Alberta School Trustees' Association, (3) the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, (4) university faculty of education professors, (5) parent interest groups concerned with special education, and (6) private schools providing services to exceptional children.

A minimum sample size of approximately 30 was sought, but this was made much larger wherever possible. Details of the selection of each group sample are now given.

1. The Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) The sample was selected on a province-wide basis from members of the teaching service, all public school teachers being required by law to be members of the professional association. Two groups of teachers were used, one representing teachers of special education classes as classified by the provincial department of education, and one representing regular elementary classroom teachers. For each of these, a sample size of

85 teachers was used for each group, made up of teachers from jurisdictions classified as divisions, counties, and cities and other independent boards throughout Alberta. Each stratified random sample was selected by the Department of Education computer using information concerning the position teachers occupied in their schools. In each case, the sample was stratified on the basis of the total number of teachers employed in each of the types of school jurisdictions. Figures indicated, for example, that approximately 55 percent of teachers were employed in cities, a further 35 percent were employed in divisions and counties, while the remainder were in other independent board districts. Details of the distribution of the sample are given in Table 7.

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN SAMPLE

| Unit | Regular Teachers | Special Education Teachers |
|---|---|---|
| Divisions | 15 | 15 |
| Counties | 15 | 15 |
| Cities | 45 | 45 |
| Other Independent Boards | 10 | 10 |
| Totals | 85 | 85 |

To this sample was added the returns obtained from the pilot study, consisting of one group of 20 regular classroom teachers and another group of 28 teachers from a segregated special-purpose school, giving a total sample size of 105 for one group and 113 for the other.

2. The Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.) This sample was selected from chairmen of school boards across the province. Boards were grouped according to whether they represented jurisdictions classified as divisions, counties, or independent school districts, and a sample of 45 selected using a table of random numbers. The number of participants in each strata was calculated on the basis of figures giving the total number of school boards in each type of jurisdiction, and dividing this number by three to reduce the total from approximately 150 to near the required amount.

3. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.) Superintendents of Schools were selected for inclusion in the sample in the same manner as school trustees, by again using a table of random numbers within a stratified sample. Details of the distribution of the sample between the three types of jurisdictions are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8

DISTRIBUTION OF TRUSTEES AND SUPERINTENDENTS IN STUDY

| Jurisdictions | A.S.T.A. | C.A.S.S. |
|---|---|---|
| Divisions | 10 | 10 |
| Counties | 10 | 10 |
| School Districts | 25 | 25 |
| Total | 45 | 45 |

4. University Faculty of Education. The university sample included in the study was selected on a random basis from faculty members in a major university within the province of Alberta. Staff from the Departments of Elementary Education, Educational Psychology, and Educational Administration were included in the sample on the basis that these three departments represented the group within the university that would have most contact with the area under investigation, and to whom the study would have most relevance. There were 64 faculty members in the Department of Elementary Education, 56 in Educational Psychology, and 26 in the Department of Educational Administration, making a total population of 146. From this total, using a table of random numbers, a sample of 60 was selected; this gave a breakdown between departments of 24 from Elementary Education, 23 from Educational Psychology, and 13 from Educational Administration. One person was later dropped from the Educational Psychology sample and one from that for Educational Administration because they were involved in the study in other ways, giving a total sample size of 58.

5. Parent and Community Groups. There are a large number of groups working in the province of Alberta to help parents of exceptional children and to provide pressure on the government to improve facilities for these children. An effort was made to include in the sample a representative group of parents of exceptional children, and of community members working towards obtaining improved treatment of exceptional children. The group selected was concerned with the area of learning disabilities in children.

Some difficulty was experienced in obtaining the sample for this group. In general, permission could not be obtained for the researcher to have access to membership lists, and hence it was not possible to have direct control over the composition of the sample. However, the group included was prepared to send out the questionnaires providing they were delivered to them ready for postage. Fifty questionnaires were sent to a sample selected on the basis of the length of the membership list; a membership of 500 meant that a questionnaire was sent to every tenth person on the membership list.

It is recognized that this does not represent a true random sample, but as this was the only means that such a sample could be included at all, it was decided to work on this basis. One major difficulty was that it made impossible, follow-up procedures to ensure that returns were as high as possible and hence the rate of return for this group could be expected to be lower than that from other groups.

6. Private Schools for the Handicapped. As pointed out in chapter 3, a significant group providing educational services, particularly for the severely mentally retarded, is the private schools. These are usually operated by independent associations, although they do receive grants from the provincial government and local school boards towards the cost of educating exceptional children, particularly where the boards do not provide such services themselves. These schools are, almost by definition, segregated, and are separated from the main educational system. Hence, it was considered important to obtain the attitudes of teachers at these schools, and to observe if these were significantly different from those at schools operated by local jurisdictions. Three schools representing a total of 50 teachers were included, one a large school in a major city, one from an area

adjoining a major population centre, and the third from a large country town. The schools were selected from a list of schools operated in the province by local associations. It was later found that one school had been absorbed into the public school system; the 6 questionnaires returned were therefore not included in the study, and were destroyed.

Summary. The total sample used in the study is shown in Table 9. It included a total of 468 respondents, all of whom were members of organizations interested in educational policy making.

TABLE 9

OVERALL COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE

| Group | N | Classification |
|---|---|---|
| A.T.A. | 105 | Regular teachers |
| | 113 | Special Education Teachers |
| A.S.T.A. | 45 | Board Chairmen |
| C.A.S.S. | 45 | School Superintendents |
| Universities | 60 | Professors |
| Parent Groups | 50 | Members of Associations |
| Private Schools | 50 | Teachers |
| Totals | 468 | Interest group members |

## DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Questionnaire forms were coded to allow for group identification, and then mailed to most of the participants in the early weeks of November, 1977. Those members of the sample for the pilot study received their questionnaires earlier in October, while those in private schools for the exceptional did not receive their questionnaires until the last week in November because of delays in obtaining permission for their inclusion. For most groups, questionnaires were mailed to individual participants and returns were requested within one week of receipt. Those for the University Faculty were distributed using the university internal mail distribution system, while the staff of one private school completed their questionnaires as part of a staff meeting attended by the researcher.

Because of the high cost, follow-up letters were distributed only to those groups showing the lowest rate of return. After allowing approximately two weeks, a follow-up letter was sent to university faculty and school trustees late in November, 1977. Letters of thanks were sent to schools participating in the pilot study and these letters also contained a reminder about the return of questionnaires. A telephone call was also made to each school principal. As pointed out elsewhere, it was not possible to follow-up members of the parent-community group because the researcher had little control over those receiving questionnaires.

## TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Data collected using the two questionnaires referred to earlier were treated according to the type of information and the purposes for which it was obtained. That gained from the Organization/ Agency Information Sheet was analysed by the researcher, while that from the School Placement Schedule was coded and transferred onto key punch cards for analysis using the University of Alberta MTS computer system. Programs used were taken from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (1975). Detailed information on data treatment is given below.

Sub-problem 1. Information obtained on the Organization/ Agency Information Sheet was classified according to criteria shown in Figure 2 on page 37. Groups were divided into the four types suggested by Pross (1975:9-18) on the basis of their objectives, organizational features, use of mass media, and access to government members. The overall level of institutionalization was then assessed for each group.

Sub-problem 2. The attitudes of group members towards the school placement of exceptional children were obtained from the results of Part II of the Placement schedule. Responses for each of the 20 items were analysed by calculating the means and standard deviations for each group. The range of responses was also inspected to determine if there was a close relationship between individual responses within each group, or if they were widely separated. The 20 items were then ranked according to the mean scores of each group. The total mean score for each group was also calculated.

Differences between mean group scores were tested for significance using the F ratio or analysis of variance technique, details of which are given later in this section.

Where significant differences were obtained on the F ratio, the Scheffe Multiple Comparison of Means test was used to discover which of the between-group scores were significant. At all times a significance level of $p < 0.05$ was accepted, except when using the Scheffe test when, because of its high power (Ferguson, 1971:271), $p < 0.1$ was accepted as the significance level.

The use of these techniques enabled the researcher to locate those differences between group mean scores that were statistically significant at the levels indicated above, and hence to establish those differences between groups which it could be claimed did not occur by chance alone.

Sub-problem 3. The amount of knowledge of special education shown by each respondent on Part III of the questionnaire was determined by counting the number of correct responses, which gave a total score out of 20. Group responses on each of the 20 items were tabulated and inspected, but only the total scores were analysed statistically. Mean scores and standard deviations for each group were calculated, and the groups ranked on the basis of the mean obtained. Differences between groups were also analysed using the analysis of variance techniques to determine if they were statistically significant.

The correlation between the total mean score on this section and the total integration score obtained in Part II for each group and for the total sample was calculated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to determine if there was any relationship between the knowledge of respondents as evidenced by this test and their attitude to the placement of exceptional children in school settings.

Sub-problem 4. The level of perceived influence of each group was analysed by obtaining a mean score on Part IV of the Placement Schedule for each group and ranking the groups according to the scores obtained. The analysis of variance test was again used on mean scores to determine if significant differences occurred. This procedure was applied to both sections of the Schedule. An inspection of mean scores on two sections of this part was used to determine if significant changes occurred in the results from one section to the other.

A comparison was drawn between the rankings obtained on section (2) of this part, and those obtained in Part III of the schedule, to determine if there was any relationship between these two variables. Also, an investigation of the relationship between rankings obtained on section (1) of this part, and the rankings allocated to groups according to their degree of institutionalization in Sub-problem 1, was carried out using the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient.

## STATISTICAL TREATMENTS USED

A number of statistical treatments were applied to the data as indicated in the previous section. The assumptions underlying the use of these techniques are now discussed.

1. Analysis of Variance. This technique, according to Popham and Sirotnik (1973:154), tests for significant differences between the mean scores obtained on any variable by two or more groups. The method of calculation involves artifically combining the

scores of all subjects in each group into one total group and then comparing the within-group variance to the between-group variances. The result obtained is known as the F ratio, and significant differences occur only when $F > 1$.

Certain assumptions must be satisfied before the technique can be useful (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973:235; Engelhart, 1972:411). These are:

a) The samples used must be randomly selected and independent;

b) The variances of the samples must be homogeneous; and

c) The variable must be normally distributed throughout the population.

In this study, differences between mean group scores were analysed using this technique. Assumption (a) was satisfied by the method of sample selection while it was assumed that the variables under study were normally distributed throughout the population. As far as homogeneity of variables was concerned, the variances were checked statistically to investigate this fact. On those occasions where departure from this assumption was noted, the analysis of variance technique was nevertheless proceeded with, providing the departure was not too serious. Both Popham and Sirotnik (1973:166) and Guilford and Fruchter (1973:227) suggested that this was acceptable. As Popham and Sirotnik stated:

> There is increasing evidence, however, that even though fairly significant departures from strict theoretical assumptions may exist, analysis of variance is sufficiently "robust" that it will still yield results which may be meaningfully interpreted.

Where the analysis of variance technique indicated the presence of statistically significant differences between groups, a further test, the Scheffe Multiple Comparison of Means test, was applied.

2. Scheffe Multiple Comparison of Means Test. This is an extremely rigorous test (Ferguson, 1971:271) used to investigate significant relationships between the means of multiple groups. It uses the F test and is not seriously affected by violations of the homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions unless these are marked. It is usual to place the level of significance for results obtained using this technique at $p < 0.10$ because of the high power of the test.

3. Correlation Measures. Correlation (Popham and Sirotnik, 1973:64) refers to "A quantifiable relationship between two variables." The most common technique for measuring the degree to which one variable is correlated with another is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, r. According to Engelhart (1972:205), this summarizes the extent of a relationship between two variables. This product-moment coefficient requires that data be continuous in nature, that the relationship between the two variables be a linear one, and that the scores have been obtained in independent pairs. (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973:95)

When groups are placed in rank-order, correlations between the rankings on two variables can be obtained using the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient rho. This (Guilford and Fruchter, 1973:283) is especially useful when the number of pairs is less than 30, and makes the same basic assumptious as the Pearson product-moment coefficient.

Both techniques are used in this study.

# VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

A major concern when using instruments in research is the determination of whether they are really useful in obtaining the information required. This involves an investigation into the validity and reliability of the instrument.

## Validity

The validity of an instrument was defined by Engelhart (1972:161) as the degree to which a test "measures what it is stipulated to measure." In other words, the validity of the schedule used in the present study is indicated by the extent to which Part II actually measures the attitudes of respondents to the school placement of exceptional children, the extent to which Part III provides an indication of how much respondents know about special education, and the extent to which Part IV reveals the actual influence of groups on educational policy making.

In the original study, Haring et al. (1958:112) used the critical incident technique to validate scores obtained on the Classroom Integration Index and the General Information Inventory. They concluded that:

> Many of these changes in teaching practice appear to depend on the development of attitudes of increased acceptance and understanding, suggesting that the gains measured by the General Information Inventory and the Classroom Integration Inventory are an accurate reflection of attitude development among the teachers engendered by the workshop.

The Critical Incident technique was obviously not able to definitively evaluate the validity of the instruments, but did provide a general indication that attitude changes were in line with changes shown by the instrument.

In the present study, validity of the questionnaire was evaluated from results obtained on the pilot study, Part II was validated by comparing results obtained with those that had been obtained in previous research and quoted in chapter 2. For example, results indicated a progression towards more segregated school placements as the severity of the exceptionality increased. Part III was validated by comparing the scores obtained between the three groups in the pilot study. It could be expected that the mean scores of the group of teachers involved in special education would be higher than that obtained by regular classroom teachers, and this was found to be the case in the pilot study. Special education teachers obtained a mean score of 10.7 while the mean for regular teachers was 8.69.

Because of difficulties involved, the scores obtained on Part IV of the questionnaire were not validated against external criteria, except for noting that rankings obtained for the various interest groups showed a basic consistency with research evidence quoted in chapter 2 of this study.

Without comparing results on this questionnaire to those obtained from a similar but previously validated study, it is difficult to establish the validity of the findings. The best that can be said is that the findings appear to be in line with previous research, and therefore possess validity to this extent.

## Reliability

The reliability of a test instrument is the "amount of consistency between measurements in a series." (Isaac, 1971:87) In this study, the reliability of Part II was assessed by comparing the results obtained on certain pairs of items in the schedule that were similar, it being expected that responses on these pairs of items would be similar too. Items so grouped were 1 and 19, 2 and 17, 4 and 16, 5 and 12, and 9 and 13. Product-moment coefficients were calculated for each pair, and the percentage of responses that were (a) the same for each item, and (b) within one category of being the same, were noted. Although the correlation coefficients were not high (all under 0.7), in all cases at least 40 percent of respondents gave the same response, and in every case except one, the second group included at least three-quarters of the total group. This was thus considered to indicate an acceptable level of reliability. Results obtained are shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10

RELIABILITY MEASURES, PART II OF SCHEDULE

| | 1 and 19 | 2 and 17 | 4 and 16 | 5 and 12 | 9 and 13 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reliability Coefficient | .305 | .088 | .585 | .362 | .641 |
| Significance* | .018 | .278 | .000 | .006 | .000 |

*To be significant at 0.05 level, $r \geq .288$

| | 1 and 19 | 2 and 17 | 4 and 16 | 5 and 12 | 9 and 13 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| % with same score | 42 | 59 | 56 | 42 | 69 |
| % within one category | 33 | 23 | 23 | 23 | 17 |
| Total % within one category | 75 | 82 | 79 | 65 | 86 |

The odds-even split-half technique was used to calculate the reliability of Part III of the schedule. This gave a Spearman-Brown correlation coefficient of 0.69.

Again, it was difficult to ascertain the reliability of Part

IV in any definite way. Observation of results did indicate that they were in line with what might be expected, but quite a number of groups received similar scores. At the top end of the influence scale was the provincial Department of Education, while at the lower level were the private schools and community organizations. Variations to this ranking occurred when special education was focused upon.

### Summary

An attempt was made to investigate the validity and reliability of the instrument used in the study. Results obtained on the instrument were validated by comparing them with the findings of previous studies; reliability was calculated by examining the questionnaire for internal consistency. In each case it was felt that a satisfactory finding was obtained.

## RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The questionnaire used in this study was long and quite difficult to complete, and it could be expected that the rate of return would be quite low. Difficulties in contacting some members of the sample provided additional problems. A further complicating factor was that schedules were sent to Chairmen of School Boards within a period of four weeks of the triennial election of school trustees, a time when many new faces would be evident in this group. They may thus have been reluctant to fill out questionnaires so early in their term as board chairmen.

As discussed earlier, the suggested acceptable response rate varies according according to the source, and for this study it was felt that a rate averaging at least 60-65 percent would be satisfactory. The actual rate achieved is shown in Table 11.

## TABLE 11

## RATE OF RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRES

| Group | Membership | No. Sent | No. Usable Returns | No. Unusable Returns | % Usable Returns | % Total Returns |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 03 | Special Education Teachers | 113 | 69 | 8 | 61% | 68% |
| 04 | Regular Class Teachers | 105 | 63 | 7 | 60% | 66% |
| 05 | University Faculty | 60 | 36 | 5 | 60% | 68% |
| 06 | Superintendents | 45 | 37 | 2 | 82% | 86% |
| 07 | Trustees | 45 | 23 | 5 | 51% | 62% |
| 08 | Private Schools | 50 | 24 | 7 | 48% | 62% |
| 10 | Parent Group | 50 | 29 | 2 | 58% | 62% |
| Total | | 468 | 281 | 36 | 60% | 67% |

## PILOT STUDY

In order to determine the appropriateness of the instruments planned for gathering data in the study, a pilot study was carried out using one group of special education teachers, one group of regular elementary school teachers, and one parent and community group actively involved in the work of special education in Alberta. In the initial planning stage, one school declined to cooperate in the study and an alternative was selected. For the teacher samples, staff at single schools were used for administrative convenience, but members of the community group were sampled across the province. Questionnaires were distributed in the third week of October, 1977 and collected one week later.

A total of 48 replies were included in the pilot study, made up of 16 from each group. Data analysis was carried out prior to all returns being received, it being considered that a sufficient number had been received for this to proceed. As the returns were also to be included in the major study if large-scale revision was not required, no analysis of the rate of return was carried out in the pilot study.

Questionnaires were distributed by the researcher to the two schools involved, and returns collected, but no attempt was made to check the names of those returning questionnaires. After a two-week period, a telephone call was made to each school principal asking that a general appeal be made for further returns in the hope that this would encourage late returns. The parent association, as noted elsewhere, refused the researcher access to membership files but did agree to send out the questionnaires itself. While the help received was very much appreciated, it did make follow-up procedures virtually impossible as the researcher was unaware to whom the questionnaires had been distributed.

The analysis of results showed the need for a number of minor changes in terminology and these were implemented prior to the main study. Results otherwise indicated that the questionnaire was achieving its purpose and so it was decided to continue with its use in the main study. One problem encountered was caused by the style and length of the questionnaire, which tended to work against a high return rate. This was carefully considered, and thought given to altering the style and/or length, but it was decided that to do so would seriously weaken the completeness of information that could be obtained from the questionnaire in its present form. The decision was therefore made to continue with the study in its present form.

## SUMMARY

This chapter provided details of the research design used in the study. Information was given about the use of the questionnaire as a research instrument and the development of the example used in this study. The methods of treatment of data obtained and the assumptions underlying the use of each method of statistical treatment were discussed, and an attempt made to establish the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Details were given of a pilot study that was conducted, and finally the response rate for the questionnaire was noted.

## CHAPTER 5

## THE ANALYSIS OF INTEREST GROUPS INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

A major assumption of this study is that public policies are formulated as a result of demands made upon the political systems by the various interest groups in the environment. The interest groups included in the study have already been indicated in Chapter 4, so the present chapter outlines the rationale behind their inclusion and provides an analysis of each group using information obtained on the Organization/Agency Information Sheet.

### SELECTION OF GROUPS

Evidence has already been presented to suggest that the formulation of educational policies is largely a function of provincial governments in Canada; other research has indicated that interest groups develop and make demands at the same level of government as that at which policy demands are made. Hence, the emphasis in this study is upon the inclusion of provincially-organized groups.

Secondly, following Mazzoni and Campbell (1976:3), the groups included in the study were members of "the relatively stable group of actors who have a continuing concern with public school policy and who interact on a regular basis." Thus, only groups which existed on a more-or-less permanent basis and whose main concern was educational, were included. It is recognized that a plethora of organizations can exert pressure upon the government with regard to educational policy annually to set policies for the operation of the whole organization in the ensuing year. Both regular class and special education teachers can have input into the policies adopted, but decisions are made by the total body of representatives speaking for all teachers in Alberta.

In the Alberta context, the selection of groups to be included in the study was based on the following divisions of the educative process:

a) Those who provide public education facilities: locally elected school trustees.

b) Those who control and administer the public educational facilities: superintendents of schools.

c) Those who teach in public educational facilities: members of the Alberta Teachers' Association.

d) Those who teach about education: members of education faculties in the universities.

e) Those whose children attend educational facilities, particularly those providing special education: parents of exceptional children and members of interest groups in this area.

f) Those who teach in alternative facilities for the education of exceptional children: teachers in private schools for the exceptional.

It had been intended to include the staff of the Department of Education in the study, particularly those employed in the Field Services Division. However, it was not possible to obtain the necessary approval to do so, and the emphasis of the study was changed slightly to allow for this. Thus, the sample was restricted to those major educational interest groups that have a direct involvement in some aspects of the education of exceptional children in Alberta. A brief analysis of each group follows.

## ANALYSIS OF GROUPS

As a result of information obtained on the Organization/Agency Information Schedule, and from personal interviews conducted to supplement these, the groups were analysed using Pross's typology of interest groups outlined earlier in the study. This analysis is now described.

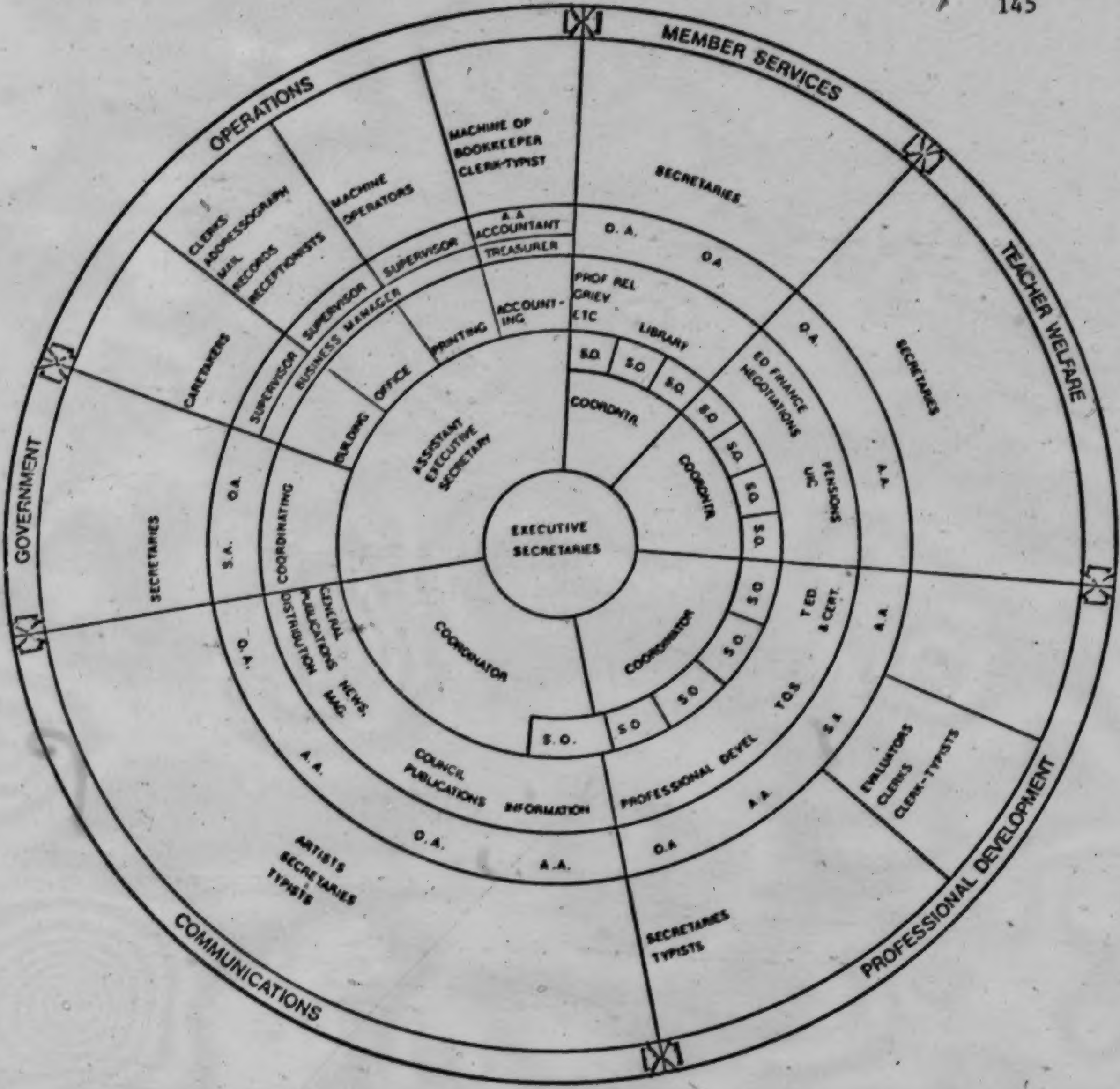
### 1. The Alberta Teachers' Association

#### a) Organizational Features

The Alberta Teachers' Association is by far the largest of the interest groups included, with a total membership of approximately 26,000 teachers. All members are teachers employed by public or separate school boards in Alberta either on a full-time, part-time or substitute-teachers basis. Membership in the A.T.A. is mandatory for all teachers employed by public or separate school boards, but teachers in private schools are not required to join.

As well as the largest, the A.T.A. is also the wealthiest of the groups included, having an annual income from membership fees--which are at present $192 per year--of $4million. The association offers a broad range of services to its members; its main objective is "to promote the cause of education and to enhance the status of the teaching profession." (Questionnaire response). It was established in 1918.

The A.T.A. has a full-time staff of approximately 100, organized as shown in Figure 11. The day-to-day operation of the association is in the hands of staff members who report to the


MEMBER SERVICES
TEACHER WELFARE
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
COMMUNICATIONS
GOVERNMENT
OPERATIONS
EXECUTIVE SECRETARIES
ASSISTANT EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
MACHINE OP
BOOKKEEPER
CLERK-TYPIST
MACHINE OPERATORS
CLERKS
ADDRESSOGRAPH
MAIL
RECORDS
RECEPTIONISTS
CARETAKERS
A.A.
ACCOUNTANT
TREASURER
SUPERVISOR
SUPERVISOR
SUPERVISOR
BUSINESS MANAGER
ACCOUNT-ING
PRINTING
OFFICE
BUILDING
SECRETARIES
D. A.
O.A.
PROF REL
GRIEV
ETC
LIBRARY
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
COORDNTR.
O.A.
SECRETARIES
ED FINANCE
NEGOTIATIONS
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
COORDNTR.
PENSIONS
UIC
A.A.
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
S.O.
COORDINATOR
T. ED.
& CERT.
A.A.
T.Q.S.
S.A.
EVALUATORS
CLERKS
CLERK-TYPISTS
PROFESSIONAL DEVEL
A.A.
O.A
SECRETARIES
TYPISTS
S. O.
COORDINATOR
COUNCIL
PUBLICATIONS
INFORMATION
A.A.
O. A.
NEWS.
MAG.
GENERAL
PUBLICATIONS
DISTRIBUTION
O.A.
A. A.
ARTISTS
SECRETARIES
TYPISTS
COORDINATING
S.A.
O.A.
SECRETARIES

S.O. STAFF OFFICER
O.A. OFFICE ASSISTANT
A.A. ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT
S.A. STAFF ASSISTANT

The Alberta Teachers' Association

Figure 11

Organizational Structure

Provincial Executive Council. This is an elected executive body which is required to operate within the limits of policy and bylaws established at the Annual Representative Assembly. The Assembly is the governing body of the organization and meets once each year.

b) Policies

The policies of the A.T.A. are clearly defined, although generally they relate specifically to the field of education. Information given on the questionnaire suggested that "Resolutions adopted by representative assemblies comprise the policy of the A.T.A.," which is divided into a number of parts:

> The policy section is in three parts. The first part contains long-range policy statements in thirteen areas . . . . The second part includes resolutions formulated to achieve long-range policy. These resolutions are classified as current specific policy and as directives for action. Current specific policy resolutions will stand for five years, after which time they will be reviewed with the objects of reaffirmation, amendment, or deletion. Directives for action must be reaffirmed annually to be maintained in the Association's policy." (A.T.A. Members' Handbook, 1977:158)

Policies developed cover a wide range of topics, including curriculum, teacher education and certification, working conditions for Professional Service, Educational Finance, Organization and Administration of schools, processes of teaching and political involvement. No special policy areas have been established for special education, although several items do have application in this field. These are:

> 1.4 Every individual has the right to educational opportunities in a publicly supported educational system structured to develop his individual potentialities. (A.T.A. Members' Handbook, 1977:161)
>
> 7.A.16. Be it resolved, that the Department of Education be urged to provide grants to enable school boards to provide educational facilities for students with special problems. (p. 175)
>
> 10.A.24 Current Specific Policy: Be it resolved, that the A.T.A. request the Department of Education to provide instruction for

> visually impaired and blind children throughout the province in regular schools where from their earliest years the children may be integrated into normally sighted classes as soon and as much as possible; that the opportunity for a child to live at home or to maintain frequent contact with his home be a prime consideration; that the Department of Education supply sufficient funds to the school boards concerned for braille classes, low vision classes, resource program and itinerant programs; and that the Department of Education continue and increase its funding of training for personnel involved with these students. (p. 178)

Of these three policy statements, the first is broad and suggests that public education should be available to all children presumably including the exceptional child. The second statement goes a little further, urging the provision of funds to allow programs to be provided within the school systems for students with special needs or problems, but is still rather vague and imprecise. If these policies are seeking mandatory legislation, they could state this more precisely than they do at present. The third policy statement is a much more definite request for children with visual impairments to be educated in regular classes as much and as early as possible. However, it does refer only to one group of children, not to exceptional children in general.

The Special Education Specialist Council of the A.T.A. has more specific policies with regard to special education, but these have not been transferred into general policy of the Association and so will not be considered here.

c) Access to Government

Because of its size, resources, and the fact that it represents all teachers in Alberta, a well-educated and politically astute group of people, it could be expected that the A.T.A. would have easy access to government policy makers. With regard to the type of access used, it was indicated that dealings with the government are of the type (ii) category, which is "Sometimes of the confrontation type, but often involve discussions with government officials over organization policies on specific matters."

The A.T.A. also uses publicity-oriented protests occasionally, regularly presents briefs to public bodies and inquiries, quite often makes public relations and general press releases, and resorts to image-building advertising occasionally.

Thus ~~it~~ can be claimed that the Alberta Teachers' Association is a highly institutionalized organization devoted to obtaining better conditions for its members and a better education for the children of the province.

## 2. Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.)

### a) Organizational Features

The Alberta School Trustees' Association is an organization representing the trustees of all 142 Alberta School Systems. Membership by each board is voluntary- but dependent upon the payment of fees which are based on the pupil enrolment of each jurisdiction. The organization had an operating budget of approximately $900,000 for 1977 and employed a full-time staff of about 20. The day-to-day operations of the organization are in the hands of professional staff led by the Executive Director who is responsible to the Executive of the Association. The organizational structure is shown in Figure 13.

The A.S.T.A. was established in its original form in 1907. It was granted corporate status by *The Alberta School Trustees' Association Act* of 1939, which defined the purposes of the organization as including:

> . . to consider and deal with matters relating to education and school administration with a view to the betterment thereof; . . .

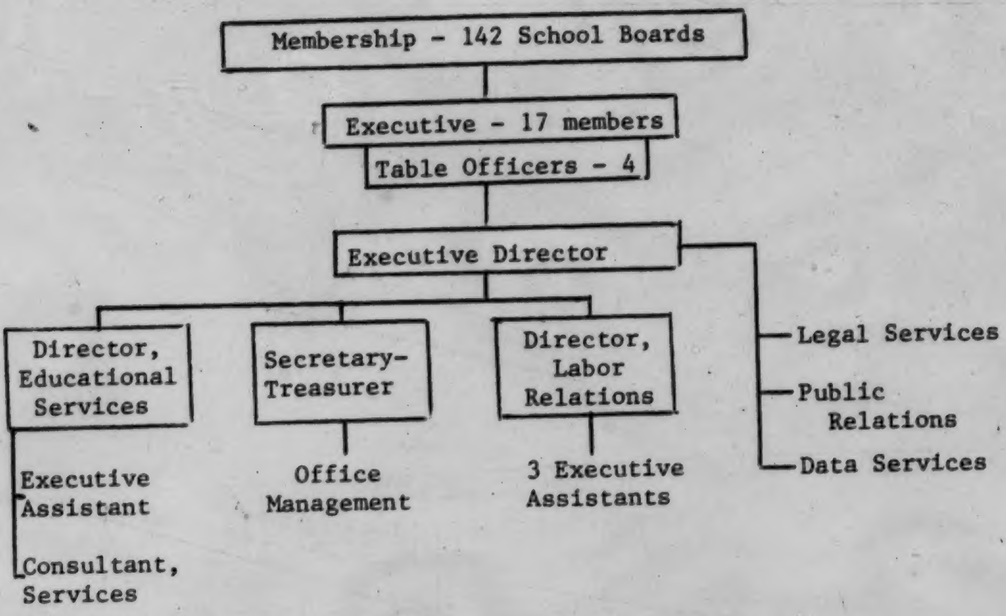

Membership - 142 School Boards
Executive - 17 members
Table Officers - 4
Executive Director
Director, Educational Services
Secretary-Treasurer
Director, Labor Relations
Legal Services
Public Relations
Data Services
Executive Assistant
Consultant, Services
Office Management
3 Executive Assistants

Figure 13

Organizational Chart, A.S.T.A. (1977)

> [and] to cooperate for the promotion, guidance, and improvement of legislation on educational and school questions. (Section 3, The Alberta School Trustees' Association Act)

b) Policies

The policies of the A.S.T.A. are established at the Annual Convention of the Association which may be attended by all school trustees. The policies are diverse and clearly defined, covering a broad range of topics that go beyond the limits of educational matters to include the general welfare of the community. (e.g., Policy Statement 10.C.13, Members' Handbook, 1977:122) The Handbook of the Association (1977:99) stated that:

> The Alberta School Trustees' Association Policy Statements in this Handbook represent the official stand of our Association with respect to a wide range of topics: the organization and operation of the A.S.T.A., the relationship of the A.S.T.A. to other groups

> and organizations, and the operation of the school programs by A.S.T.A. member boards and committees. These policy statements in the form of long-range policy, current specific policy, and directives for action, were approved at Annual Conventions of the Association. It is hoped that they will serve as a framework for continuous action on the part of the elected officials of the Association, the central office staff, and the trustees in every part of Alberta.

Only those policies relating to special education will be considered here. These are quite numerous, in particular relating to the need for the government to provide additional finance for the extension of special education services by school boards. Examples are given from the Members' Handbook, 1977.

> Section 6.C.06 The Association shall "advocate the provision of physical plants, equipment and related services to meet the needs of every learner." (p. 111)
>
> Section 6.C.28 The Association shall "request that the government provide assistance for the construction and operation of approved schools for retarded children at rates equal to the reasonable capital and operational costs involved." (p. 112)
>
> Section 7.C.43 The Association shall "urge the establishment of courses with flexible entrance requirements that are recognized for credit toward a teaching certificate designed to upgrade present teachers of mental retardates as well as encourage suitable persons to enter the profession of teaching mental retardates." (p. 115)
>
> Section 8.C.38 Be it resolved, that the Alberta School Trustees' Association advocate a comprehensive educational program be made available for all trainable and educable mentally retarded children and physically handicapped children within the publicly supported school systems in the province with funding to be provided by the School Foundation Program Fund. (p. 120)
>
> Section 9.C.07 The Association shall "urge member boards and committees to provide for the identification and adequate instruction of all exceptional children." (p. 121)

These policy statements cover such aspects of special education as the identification of children with special needs, the provision of adequate physical facilities, the training of special education teachers, and the provision of facilities within rather than outside the public school system. Although contained within the "spirit" of the policy statements, mandatory legislation is not referred to specifically, nor is the need for placement of exceptional children in the least restrictive environment.

The overall impression obtained from an analysis of these policies is that the school boards would like to do more for exceptional children, but can only do so if alterations are made to the basic methods by which provincial funding is provided.

c) Access to Government

On the questionnaire response, access to the government on policy matters was indicated as being usually of type (ii), which consists of some confrontations but more often involving discussions with government officials.

Publicity-oriented protests were indicated as being used occasionally, presentation of briefs to public bodies are made regularly, while public relations and general press releases, and image-building advertising, are all apparently used only occasionally.

In summary, the Alberta School Trustees' Association is a highly organized association which received some degree of official government backing in its formation. It has an influential membership and a high level of financial resources.

3. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.)

a) Organizational Features

The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents is a more recently established and smaller organization than the two discussed previously. For example, while the Alberta Teachers' Association has a membership of 26,000, C.A.S.S. has under 150 in its membership. Along with this small size, it has more limited resources of approximately $20,000 income per year and a paid staff of only one part-time executive secretary. Most of its income is derived from membership fees which in 1977 were set at $150 per member.

The main reason for C.A.S.S. being of more recent origin is that for a long period prior to 1970 the superintendents of all except the major urban school jurisdictions were appointed by the Provincial Government and were members of the Department of Education. The small number of locally-appointed superintendents met in an informal way under the aegis of the Department of Education commencing in 1958. Their organization was known as the Alberta Urban School Superintendents Association. (C.A.S.S. Handbook, 1974:2)

Following the review of The School Act in 1970, all superintendents were appointed and employed by the local school jurisdictions. This change had been foreshadowed by the members of the A.U.S.S.A., who had moved in 1968 to set up a wider organization which became known as C.A.S.S. Membership is now open to all superintendents "and other certificated educational officers in the central office staff who are excluded from the local bargaining unit of the A.T.A." (Foreword, C.A.S.S. Handbook, 1974). This includes deputy superintendents as well as some other senior administrative staff members.

The organizational structure is shown in Figure 14.

### b) Policies

Policies are clearly defined in the C.A.S.S. Handbook, and cover a wide field of operation. Despite this, in general they relate only to the area of educational administration in such aspects as

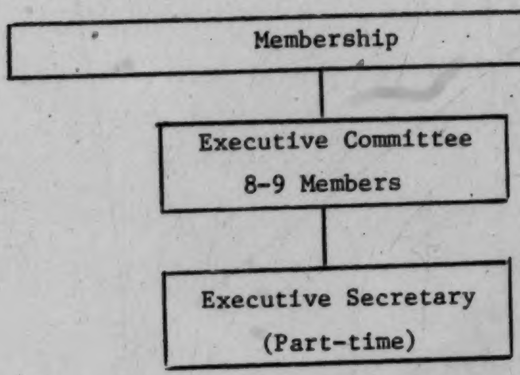


Figure 14

Organizational Structure, C.A.S.S.

finance, personnel, supervision and evaluation, and the educational program. The Handbook (p. 8) stated that:

> While this Association will subscribe, in general, to the educational aims of the Department of Education, the A.S.T.A., the A.T.A. and other organizations interested in Education, the Association may promote educational objectives at variance with these organizations. The strength of the Association lies in its freedom to inquire and question, unhampered by formal ties to other educational agencies.

Policies are developed at the annual conference of the Association which all members are eligible to attend. As part of the policy making process, an Education Committee was established in 1977 whose main functions are:

a) to identify items of educational concern,

b) to invite individuals or zones to prepare position papers on these items,

c) to submit these papers to the membership for reaction,

d) to coordinate responses to these papers,

e) to submit final papers to the Annual Meeting of the membership for adoption as position of C.A.S.S. (Minutes of Annual General Meeting, April, 1977:7)

The policy statement set out in the Handbook makes no reference to any policies in the area of special education. However, references are made to the necessity of the provision of "an equal basic education to all Canadian youth," (Section 1.3:9) but this is later qualified to refer only to "all youth of school age, who by reason of interest and ability, can profit thereof." (Section 8.1:11) This statement suggests that C.A.S.S. as an organization representing the school superintendents of Alberta is committed to a policy that education should only be available to those who can profit from it. It is of course extremely difficult to predict just who will profit from education and who will not; and it is also pertinent to ask the question "What education?" Despite this, C.A.S.S. as an organization is obviously concerned about the question of integrating exceptional children into regular classes, for at the April, 1977 Annual Conference, the following resolution was accepted:

> Resolution 7: Be it resolved that C.A.S.S. initiate a study to assess the current situation regarding integration of Special Education students into regular school programs and develop a statement position in this matter. (Minutes, Annual General Meeting, April, 1977:7)

Although it appears that this study has not yet been completed, it is important to note that at least the intention and the concern about this topic are there.

c) Access to Government

As an organization with early close ties with the Department of Education, C.A.S.S. has moved to establish its independence from the Department in such ways as developing papers indicating its own position and viewpoint on policy matters and in making recommendations to the Minister of Education. The executive of the Association meets with the Minister on at least annual occasions specifically to discuss new policy recommendations and areas of concern, but does not normally make use of confrontation-type tactics to reinforce the Association's position. No use is made either of press or advertising for this purpose. In particular, C.A.S.S. as an organization has refused to become involved in matters of an economic nature with regard to education in the political arena.

C.A.S.S., then, is a small but powerful organization which has direct access to the Minister of Education. It has little developed policy on special education, but is at present planning to investigate aspects of the school placement of exceptional children.

### 4. The University Faculty of Education

#### a) Organizational Features

There are a number of basic difficulties in analyzing the organizational structure of a faculty within a major university, caused mainly by the great complexity of such an organization. The university under review has 16 faculties, over 20,000 students and an academic staff of over 2,000. One of the larger faculties is that of Education.

The Faculty of Education Calendar for 1977-78 (Section 71.2) stated:

> The Faculty of Education provides professional education for teachers of the elementary, junior high, and senior high school grades, and for graduate study and research in the field of education.

In 1977/78, about 4,000 students were enrolled in the Faculty, with a full time academic staff of about 170 members.

The administrative head of the Faculty is the Dean, who also represents the Faculty in dealings with the university as a whole. He is assisted by two associate deans, one concerned with Student Services and the other with Planning and Development. There are also three Assistant Deans. The Faculty is divided into six departments, each with its own department Chairman who is responsible to the Dean for the administration of his department.

This structure is shown in more detail in Figure 15.

b) Policies

The main policy making body within the Faculty is the Faculty of Education Council. Membership of this Council consists of all staff members holding tenured positions within the Faculty, as well as representatives of the Alberta Teachers' Association and several other faculties within the University. As a result, this is a very large body with over 170 members. Attendance varies according to the agenda, but commonly reaches 125-150. (Personal interview, Dean of Education, 2nd December, 1977) Almost of necessity, this body elects an Executive Committee of 8-9 members to act as an advisory body to the main Council.

The Department Chairmen and the Associate Deans constitute the Dean's Advisory Committee, whose task is to advise the Dean on policy making matters. The Dean is chairman of both the Faculty Council and the Executive Committee, as well as the Dean's Advisory Committee.

In the general area of teacher certification, the Board of Teacher Education and Certification, a government-established board, has an advisory role to the Faculty. Comprising representatives of the Department of Education, the University of Alberta, the Alberta

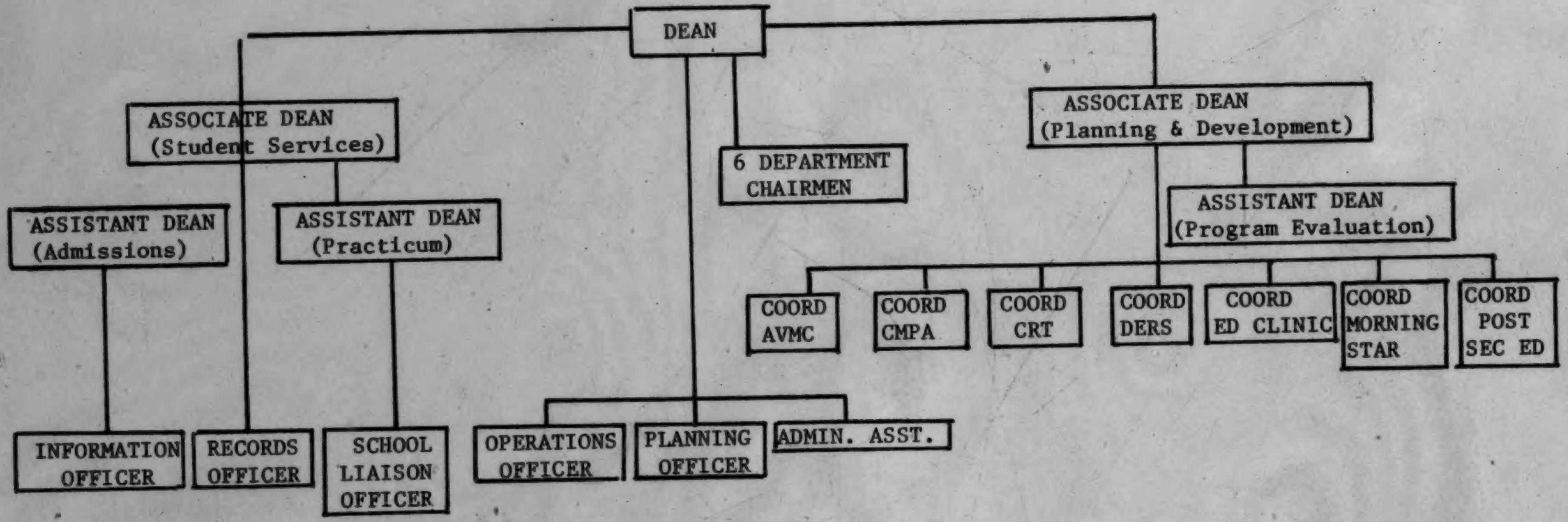

DEAN
ASSOCIATE DEAN (Student Services)
ASSISTANT DEAN (Admissions)
ASSISTANT DEAN (Practicum)
INFORMATION OFFICER
RECORDS OFFICER
SCHOOL LIAISON OFFICER
6 DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN
OPERATIONS OFFICER
PLANNING OFFICER
ADMIN. ASST.
ASSOCIATE DEAN (Planning & Development)
ASSISTANT DEAN (Program Evaluation)
COORD AVMC
COORD CMPA
COORD CRT
COORD DERS
COORD ED CLINIC
COORD MORNING STAR
COORD POST SEC ED

Figure 15

Structure of Faculty of Education

University of Alberta

Teachers' Association, and the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Board:

> Is authorized to make recommendations to the Minister of Education and to the President of the University respecting the programs of instruction, the estimates of expenditures on these programs, appointments to the staff of the Faculty of Education, and regulations governing the certification of teachers. (Faculty Calendar, 1977-78:Section 71.3)

Despite this, control by the Board over Faculty policy appears to be minimal except when changes are introduced at Board level to the requirements for teacher certification in Alberta. This can then have an impact upon courses being offered by the university.

A number of committees operate across the faculty containing representatives from each department. As well, when setting policy, it is usual for the Faculty Council to seek opinions from departments concerned with a particular matter. These opinions are developed in staff meetings held at department level. The departments are usually organized on either subject or area lines, and have policy making committees for departmental matters.

Policies generally are not clearly defined except on specific issues involving student concerns such as the holding of examinations, the setting of quotas for admission to the Faculty, or the standards required for entry into graduate study. Formal policies are not defined in areas outside the control of the faculty such as for the school placement of exceptional children, and as a general rule contact at faculty level with the Minister of Education is limited. Yet, in many ways, the University is able to influence government policy. Frequently, faculty members are asked, for example, to participate in, or even to conduct, inquiries into certain areas of policy which are of concern to the government, or they frqeuently give evidence at such inquiries.

## 5. Parent and Community Groups

### a) Organizational Features

There are a large number of groups both in the community at large and attached specifically to single schools working actively to improve educational facilities for exceptional children. Frequently, these groups hold a single type of exceptionality as their main sphere of interest; for example, several groups in Alberta function in the area of learning disability, others work for the mentally retarded, and still others for specific types of physical impairments. In many ways, these are the true interest groups in the area of special education, as has been clearly evidenced by the activities of similar groups in the United States over the past ten or fifteen years.

Groups currently existing in Alberta show great variation in size of membership, resources, and political influence. One group responding to this study gave a total membership of 6 people and an income from membership fees for 1977 of $6. This group was formed in 1958 but appears to be going out of operation now, possibly because the purpose for which it was formed--the achievement of better educational and treatment facilities for a particular group of exceptional children--has largely been attained.

The main group included in this study is a much larger one, consisting of a central coordinating body and a large number of district associations spread throughout the province in the area of learning disabilities in children. Total membership provincially was 2,000 families in 1977, many of whom belong to associations in the two largest cities of Edmonton and Calgary. Membership of the association is open to all who profess an interest in learning disabled children, and costs $10 per family or member per year. One noticeable impression obtained about this group was the large number of its members who hold influential positions in educational circles in the province of Alberta.

Income for 1977 was slightly over $18,000, of which $12,400 was received as a grant from the provincial government and the remainder was raised by the local association members. The Edmonton Association was formed in 1968, while the province-wide coordinating body was established in 1973. It has a paid staff of two half-time workers, making a full-time staff equivalent of one, but much additional work is done on a voluntary basis. The organizational structure of the local association is shown below. (Figure 16)

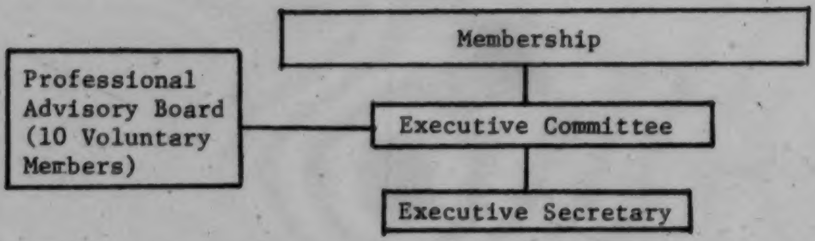

Membership
Professional Advisory Board (10 Voluntary Members)
Executive Committee
Executive Secretary

Figure 16

Organizational Structure of Parent Organization

### b) Policies

The Association was established by a number of parents of learning disabled children who were concerned about the lack of understanding being given to their children and the problems they encountered by teachers, members of the medical profession, politicians, and the general community. It has three general aims:

- To widely publicize the educational, emotional and social needs of learning disabled children, both at the community and government levels.
- To provide support and information for parents to assist them in understanding their child's problems and to help them to assume an advocacy role to obtain services for their children in home, school, and community.
- To engage, extensively and directly, in activities designed to up-grade public education in the field of learning disability; to emphasize the role of parents, educators, specialists, doctors, members of the helping professions and the general public; to create awareness of the far-reaching implications of learning disability as this affects our society.

Organizational policies, as is apparent from the above, emphasize the problems of one group of exceptional children and they are narrow and specific to that area. In addition, they emphasize the need for active participation of the group in seeking influence over the policy making process. Although not directly stated, an interview with the Executive Secretary (7th December, 1977) revealed that the main policies were directed towards the full provision of all necessary special educational facilities for learning disabled children within the public school systems. (This does not necessarily apply to all exceptional children, however.) The actual form of placement would vary according to the degree of exceptionality encountered, with mild cases being provided for in the regular classroom, moderate cases requiring some time outside the regular class, and more severe cases possibly needing full-time special class placement for a period of years.

Already, it was suggested, quite a degree of success has been achieved by the association, both politically and in educating the community. For example, a special provincial fund was established in 1974 to provide additional finance for school systems to meet the needs of exceptional children represented by this group.

### c) Access to Government

It was emphasized in an interview that this group tried very hard at all times to avoid confrontation with the government over the implementation of its demands. Rather, it preferred to meet with the Minister of Education to discuss advances in its field, and to create a need by educating the professional person and the community member. Generally, access to government was through the submission of briefs, the main choice for the application of pressure being the cabinet, and through regular contact with government officials.

The use of media was also oriented towards non-confrontation approaches; publicity-oriented protests were not used at all, but public relations releases and general press releases were used regularly. Only on certain particular occasions was image-building advertising used.

To summarize, the Association used in this study is a large, influential, and politically active group dedicated to the attainment of its goals for the benefit of a particular group of exceptional children.

## 6. Private Schools for Exceptional Children

### a) Organizational Features

A significant number of private schools in Alberta provide educational facilities for children whose parents do not wish to enrol them in either the public or the separate school system. In particular, private schools providing for the needs of exceptional children, especially the severely handicapped, have been common throughout the province, although as pointed out earlier, the number of such schools has decreased since 1969 as they have gradually been absorbed into the public school systems.

Private schools for the exceptional are usually operated by Associations of parents and interested persons in the community which raise large amounts of finance to keep facilities in the schools at a high level. Most of those that are still independent of the public school systems nevertheless work in close conjunction with these systems, and are also financed by per-pupil grants from local school boards.

The size of the private schools operating within the province varies considerably. One, dealing with a specific and uncommon form of exceptionality, had one class of four children in 1976, while another in the area of the trainable mentally retarded had a teaching staff of nearly 60 and a pupil enrolment of over 300. For this study, the teaching staff from three schools in different areas of the province were to be included. However, contact with one school revealed that it had been absorbed into the public school system and so was dropped from the study. It was only after some initial reluctance that the other two schools agreed to allow staff to participate in the study, and it is necessary to ensure that the identity of the schools does not become known. Therefore, only brief details of the larger of the two schools are given.

The school had, in 1977, a teaching staff of 54 members, of whom 44 were present on the day that questionnaires were distributed. It is operated by a local association for one particular group of exceptional children. It obtains a large proportion of its operating costs from provincial grants provided to local school boards in the areas from which the children come; other sources of revenue include direct government subsidies, donations, parental and volunteer assistance. Approximately one-tenth of its annual budget of $1,500,000 comes from the school's annual campaign, bequests, donations, and the sale of goods produced. The organizational structure of the school is shown below.

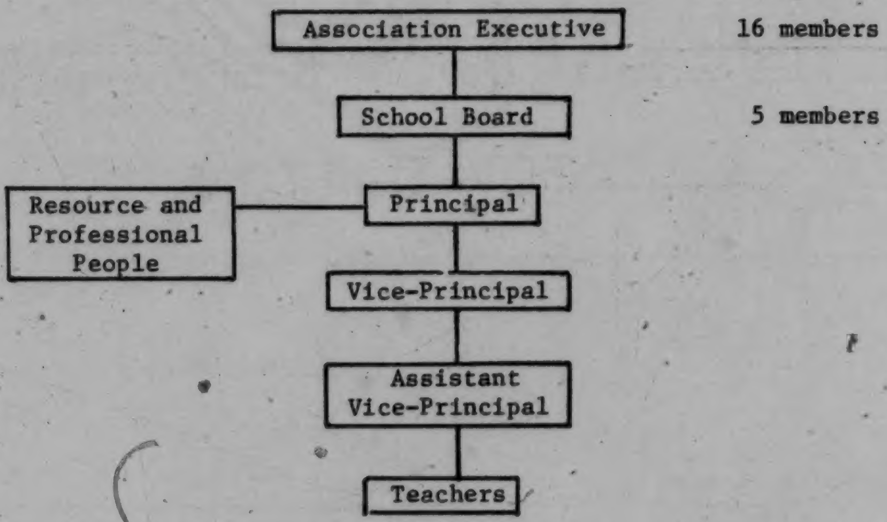

Association Executive
16 members
School Board
5 members
Resource and Professional People
Principal
Vice-Principal
Assistant Vice-Principal
Teachers

Figure 17

Organizational Structure, Private School
For The Exceptional

### b) Policies

As might be expected, the majority of the policies of the school are directed towards the provision of a highly effective form of education and training for the exceptional children it serves. In particular, the school is heavily involved in developing programs of study that will meet the needs of these children.

One aspect of a private school that does not arise with the public school systems--at the present time, at least--is that it has to justify its existence. This is particularly true with regard to schools of the type studied because many of them are being absorbed into the public school system. In interviews conducted with the Principal and Vice-Principal of the school (March 24th and November 9th, 1977) this problem was underlined by both people. In particular it was pointed out that there was a place for private schools of a segregated nature in the overall continuum of special education services, and that schools such as this one were highly effective at providing for the special needs of exceptional children.

This requires an acceptance of the philosophy that, for at least some groups of exceptional children, segregation into special schools that are not part of the public school systems is desirable. This suggests that, while the problems of removing children from their own school system are recognized, a high quality education for these children can be provided in the private school sector.

### c) Access to Government

It was not possible to obtain specific information on this point. It is assumed that political pressure on behalf of this school would be applied by the group sponsoring the school and not normally by the teaching staff.

## Discussion and Summary

Six different organizations have been discussed, three of them large, wealthy, and influential organizations that between them have considerable control over education in the province of Alberta. These are the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, and the Faculty of Education within a university. It is quite difficult to differentiate between these groups on the basis of structural variables, although the A.T.A. is the largest in terms of number of members and wealth of resources. The scope of policy making for each group is different, with the A.S.T.A. serving a broader community viewpoint as well as an educationally-directed one. The Faculty of Education is more concerned with the area of teacher training, while much of the efforts of the A.T.A. are directed towards improving facilities and general working conditions for its teacher members.

The material presented in this chapter suggests that the A.T.A. and the A.S.T.A. show the highest level of institutionalization on criteria such as size, resources, and policy development. Both of these groups are therefore grouped together as approximating the category of *institutionalized* organizations as described by Pross (1975:9-18). The Faculty of Education is classified as having the features of a *mature* group, including a highly developed organizational structure, but whose policies are not as diverse as the two groups mentioned above.

Two of the remaining three groups are much smaller, but occupy strategic positions with regard to educational policy making in

Alberta. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents has in its membership the senior educational administrators at the local level, but is limited in size, staff and available resources. It is classified as a mature organization, but on the continuum suggested by Pross (1975) is well below the University Faculty of Education (See Pages 34-35 for a definition of these terms).

The parent/community group is an example of an organization that began as an issue-oriented group and over a period of less than ten years has moved more towards the fledgling type group. This has occurred through expansion and continuity of membership and the development of extensive contact with government Ministers. Policies, though highly developed, have remained narrow in coverage.

The remaining group, private schools for exceptional children, is difficult to classify because its main purpose is not the protection of its members' interest in the same way that say, the A.T.A., is, but the provision of an education for the children it serves. Organizationally, these schools have a highly developed structure, but this is not normally used for political purposes. Instead, political involvement is normally left to the schools' sponsoring associations. The suggested classification as a fledgling group is therefore an indication only of the role such schools play in special education policy making generally.

# CHAPTER 6

# RESULTS OBTAINED BY INTEREST GROUP MEMBERS ON THE SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains details of results obtained by respondents on Parts II, III, and IV of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children. Part II of the schedule provided information on the attitudes of members of each of the interest groups towards the placement of exceptional children in various types of school settings. Part III of the schedule gave data on the amount of knowledge shown by members of interest groups of selected concepts in the area of special education, and Part IV gave details of the perceived influence of a number of interest groups on public policy in the area of special education.

Part I of the schedule was used only to provide background statistical information and is not included here.

## PART II

### Overall Attitudes towards School Placement

An indication of the general attitudes of members of each group towards the most appropriate form of school placement for exceptional children was obtained from the mean score of each group on the total of the 20 items in Part II of the schedule. These, together with standard deviations and variances, are shown in Table 12.

## TABLE 12

## MEAN SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND VARIANCES OF GROUP RESPONSES, PART II OF PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

| Group* | N | $\bar{X}$** | S.D. | $s^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Special education teachers | 69 | 3.56 | 0.69 | 0.48 |
| Regular classroom teachers | 63 | 3.48 | 0.61 | 0.38 |
| University professors | 36 | 2.90 | 0.58 | 0.34 |
| Superintendents of schools | 37 | 3.06 | 0.52 | 0.27 |
| School trustees | 24 | 3.50 | 0.59 | 0.35 |
| Private school teachers | 24 | 3.67 | 0.78 | 0.61 |
| Parent/community group | 29 | 3.35 | 0.65 | 0.42 |
| Total group | 279 | 3.35 | 0.68 | 0.46 |

$p = 0.000000$

* In this and subsequent tables, "Special education teachers" means members of the Alberta Teachers' Association teaching in special education positions; "Regular classroom teachers" means members of the A.T.A. who are teaching regular classes in elementary schools; "University professors" means members of a university faculty of education; "Superintendents of schools" means members of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents; "School trustees" means the chairmen of local school jurisdictions and members of the Alberta School Trustees' Association; "Private school teachers" means special education teachers in private schools for the exceptional; and "Parent/community group" means members of a group of parents of exceptional children and community members interested in a particular type of exceptional child.
** The lower the mean score, the more integration is favored.

The mean scores ranged from 2.90 for university faculty of education professors to 3.67 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional, on a scale where 1.00 would indicate total integration into regular classes and 7.00 would mean that the children should be fully segregated into schools outside of the public school systems.

Amplifying the results shown in the table, teachers in private schools for the exceptional and those teaching in special education positions in public and separate school systems were found to be least in favor of integrating exceptional children into regular classes, while superintendents of schools and university faculty of education professors were most in favor of integration. This infers that those closest to actually teaching exceptional children are least in favor of integration while those furthest removed from the classroom situation are most in favor of such a move.

Results obtained on the analysis of variance test suggested that differences which occurred in the mean scores between groups were significant (p = 0.000000). Use of the Scheffe test indicated that differences were significant between the mean scores of university faculty of education professors and those of special education teachers, school trustees, private school teachers of the exceptional, and regular classroom teachers. Differences were also significant between superintendents of schools and private school teachers of the exceptional, and between superintendents of schools and special education teachers. Details of values obtained on the Scheffe test are given in Table 13.

## Analysis of Individual Test Items

The scores obtained by members of each group on each of the items in Part II of the School Placement Schedule were analysed on the computer to give the mean for that item. These are shown in Table 14. Following this procedure, each item was ranked according to the mean score obtained by each group and the total group; results are shown in Table 15.

In almost every case there was a consistency in the rankings given by each group to the items, even if the actual scores differed considerably. For example, on item 10 of the questionnaire, the mean score as shown in Table 14 for university faculty of education professors was 2.17 and for teachers in private schools for the exceptional it was 3.29; yet, both groups ranked this item in 9th position out of the 20 items. The order of scoring the 20 items was thus approximately the same for all groups, despite a number of major differences in the actual scores.

TABLE 13

PROBABILITY MATRIX FOR SCHEFFE MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR ALL GROUPS ON PART II OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

| Group | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superintendents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Special Education Teachers | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 1.00 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| University Professors | *0.01 | *0.01 | 1.00 | | | | |
| School Superintendents | *0.03 | 0.13 | 0.98 | 1.00 | | | |
| School Trustees | 1.00 | 1.00 | *0.09 | 0.46 | 1.00 | | |
| Private School Teachers | 0.98 | 0.87 | *0.00 | *0.02 | 0.95 | 1.00 | |
| Parent/Community Group | 0.82 | 0.97 | 0.34 | 0.86 | 0.99 | 0.51 | 1.00 |

* denotes $p < 0.10$

TABLE 14

MEAN SCORES* INDICATING PREFERRED PLACEMENT OF RESPONDENT GROUPS ON PART II OF

SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

| Item No. | Exceptionality Type | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total Group |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Gifted | 2.55 | 2.46 | 2.22 | 2.24 | 2.54 | 2.88 | 2.79 | 2.50 |
| 2 | Trainable mentally retarded | 5.62 | 5.70 | 4.86 | 5.27 | 5.46 | 5.29 | 5.34 | 5.42 |
| 3 | Severely physically handicapped | 5.41 | 5.48 | 4.72 | 4.60 | 5.32 | 4.92 | 4.97 | 5.13 |
| 4 | Educable mentally retarded | 2.88 | 2.30 | 2.08 | 2.30 | 2.64 | 3.13 | 2.45 | 2.53 |
| 5 | Socially maladjusted | 4.75 | 4.83 | 3.72 | 4.81 | 4.78 | 4.29 | 3.76 | 4.51 |
| 6 | Hearing impaired | 2.67 | 2.56 | 2.14 | 2.16 | 2.36 | 3.13 | 2.49 | 2.49 |
| 7 | Speech defective | 3.04 | 3.03 | 2.67 | 2.78 | 3.14 | 3.50 | 3.07 | 3.00 |
| 8 | Severely learning disabled | 2.55 | 2.38 | 2.11 | 2.35 | 2.18 | 2.92 | 2.55 | 2.43 |
| 9 | Deaf | 5.16 | 5.22 | 4.75 | 4.95 | 5.36 | 4.79 | 4.97 | 5.06 |
| 10 | Heart abnormality | 2.84 | 2.92 | 2.17 | 1.97 | 3.05 | 3.29 | 3.35 | 2.76 |
| 11 | Learning disabled/hyperactive | 3.52 | 3.25 | 2.61 | 2.89 | 3.73 | 3.63 | 3.24 | 3.26 |
| 12 | Emotionally disturbed | 4.39 | 4.79 | 3.50 | 4.46 | 4.46 | 4.79 | 3.86 | 4.37 |
| 13 | Blind | 5.20 | 5.13 | 4.22 | 4.62 | 4.82 | 4.75 | 4.87 | 4.88 |
| 14 | Epileptic | 1.39 | 1.71 | 1.11 | 1.08 | 2.32 | 2.13 | 1.38 | 1.52 |
| 15 | Visually impaired | 2.90 | 2.73 | 2.08 | 1.73 | 2.68 | 3.29 | 2.93 | 2.62 |
| 16 | Educable mentally retarded | 3.13 | 2.43 | 2.11 | 2.24 | 2.82 | 3.33 | 2.52 | 2.66 |
| 17 | Multiply handicapped | 5.58 | 5.46 | 5.08 | 5.30 | 5.55 | 5.38 | 5.31 | 5.41 |
| 18 | Learning disabled | 2.58 | 2.19 | 2.14 | 2.08 | 2.86 | 2.58 | 2.35 | 2.37 |
| 19 | Gifted/artistic | 2.74 | 2.44 | 2.28 | 1.73 | 2.05 | 2.79 | 2.41 | 2.40 |
| 20 | Mildly physically handicapped | 2.20 | 2.62 | 1.50 | 1.70 | 1.82 | 2.50 | 2.35 | 2.15 |
|  | Mean | 3.56 | 3.48 | 2.90 | 3.06 | 3.50 | 3.67 | 3.36 | 3.35 |
|  | Number of responses | 69 | 63 | 36 | 37 | 22 | 24 | 29 | 279 |

* The lower the mean score, the more integration is favored.

TABLE 15

ORDER OF RANKING OF ITEMS IN PART II OF SCHEDULE, BY RESPONDENT GROUPS AND TOTAL GROUP

| Item No. | Exceptionality Type | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total Group |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Gifted | 3 | 7 | 10 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 9 | 7 |
| 2 | Trainable mentally retarded | 20 | 20 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 20 | 20 |
| 3 | Severely physically handicapped | 18 | 19 | 17 | 15 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 18 |
| 4 | Educable mentally retarded | 9 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 8 |
| 5 | Socially maladjusted | 15 | 15 | 15 | 17 | 15 | 10 | 14 | 15 |
| 6 | Hearing impaired | 6 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 6 |
| 7 | Speech defective | 11 | 12 | 13 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 11 | 12 |
| 8 | Severely learning disabled | 3 | 4 | 5 | 11 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 5 |
| 9 | Deaf | 16 | 17 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 16 | 17 | 17 |
| 10 | Heart abnormality | 8 | 11 | 9 | 5 | 11 | 9 | 13 | 11 |
| 11 | Learning disabled/hyperactive | 13 | 13 | 12 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 13 |
| 12 | Emotionally disturbed | 14 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 16 | 15 | 14 |
| 13 | Blind | 17 | 16 | 16 | 16 | 16 | 15 | 16 | 16 |
| 14 | Epileptic | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 15 | Visually impaired | 10 | 10 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 9 |
| 16 | Educable mentally retarded | 12 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 10 |
| 17 | Multiply handicapped | 19 | 18 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 19 |
| 18 | Learning disabled | 5 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| 19 | Gifted/artistic | 7 | 6 | 11 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| 20 | Mildly physically handicapped | 2 | 9 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

Rankings of 1 indicate most integrated form of school placement.

The results obtained for each item are now discussed individually in terms of mean scores, differences between group mean scores and the statistical significance of these differences, rankings given to the items by each group, and the range of responses used. Mean scores could range from 1.00 to 7.00 for each item, where:

1.00: regular class with no supplementary services (Type A)
2.00: regular class, supplementary services for up to half days (Type C)
3.00: special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days (Type D)
4.00: full-time special class in regular school (Type E)
5.00: special school but on same campus as a regular school (Type F)
6.00: special school in separate location (Type G)
7.00: the child is not the responsibility of the publicly-supported school systems (Type B).

In the discussion that follows, mean scores below 2.50 are taken to represent integrated placements of Types A or C above; scores between 2.50 and 3.49 indicate a semi-integrated placement of Type D above; those between 3.50 and 4.49 represent placement type F (Campus school); and scores above 5.50 are indicative of segregated special school placement (Type G). None of the mean scores was 6.50 or above (Type B).

Item 1. Gifted Children

On this item, the mean score for all groups was 2.50, suggesting placement of gifted children in special classes with some integration with regular classes. There were no significant differences between any of the groups on this item, the mean scores ranging from 2.22 for university faculty of education professors to 2.88 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Despite the similarity of scores, rankings for this item ranged from 3 to 10 with the mean at 7. A ranking of 3 was given by special education teachers while university faculty of education professors ranked this item in 10th position.

The percentage of responses for each type of special education placement are shown in Table 16. In all cases except the parent/community group, the majority placement was Type C, indicating that placement in a regular class with necessary supplementary services being provided was considered to be the most appropriate by the greatest number of respondents. University faculty of education professors and the parent/community group also gave a significant number of Type D (special class with some integration) placements.

## Item 2. Trainable Mentally Retarded Children

Results on this item gave a mean score for all groups of 5.42, suggesting placement of trainable mentally retarded children in special campus schools as being the most appropriate. Group means ranged from 4.86 to 5.70. Differences between special education teachers and university faculty of education professors, and between regular classroom teachers and professors were statistically significant. A ranking of 20 was given by three of the groups while the other four groups ranked this item in 19th position.

Five of the seven groups gave more than 50 per cent of their responses as Type G, suggesting a full-time segregated special school for such children. Faculty of education professors and school superintendents gave a much wider spread of responses than other groups, with the largest responses for professors being Type E (in special class full-time), while the school superintendents' responses included 19 per cent for Type E and 27 per cent for Type F (segregated school on the same campus as a regular school) placements.

## TABLE 16

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 1 (GIFTED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| **Special Education Teachers** | 7 | 55 | 28 | 1 | 3 | 6 | - |
| **Regular Classroom Teachers** | 10 | 57 | 18 | 13 | - | 3 | - |
| **University Professors** | 19 | 44 | 31 | 6 | - | - | - |
| **School Superintendents** | 24 | 54 | 8 | 3 | 8 | 3 | - |
| **School Trustees** | 9 | 50 | 23 | 14 | 5 | - | - |
| **Private School Teachers** | - | 54 | 25 | 4 | 13 | 4 | - |
| **Parent/Community Group Members** | 7 | 35 | 38 | 14 | 7 | - | - |
| **Total Group** | 11 | 51 | 24 | 7 | 4 | 3 | - |

**Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services**
**Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type E: Full-time special class in regular school**
**Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school**
**Type G: Special school in separate location**
**Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems**

Ten per cent of special education teachers and thirteen per cent of regular classroom teachers suggested that it was not the function of the public school systems to educate severely mentally retarded children. Eight per cent of school superintendents and four per cent of teachers in private schools for the exceptional, also did so. The responses are shown in Table 17.

### Item 3. Severely Physically Handicapped Children

Results on this item indicated a wide range of suggested placements for severely physically handicapped children. The overall group mean was 5.13, only slightly below that for item 2, which suggested placement in a campus-type special school. Mean scores for each group ranged from 4.60 to 5.48, with rankings varying from 15 to 19; ranking on the basis of the overall mean was 18th. No significant differences were found on the Scheffe test between group means.

Responses centred around placement in segregated special schools (Type G placement) in the case of special education teachers, regular classroom teachers, school trustees and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, all of whom gave this response more than 50 per cent of the time. University faculty of education professors placed the highest proportion in campus-type special schools (Type F), while the parent/community group also commonly gave this response. Regular classroom teachers, school superintendents, and school trustees each placed approximately 10 per cent of responses outside of the public school systems (Type B), while those teaching in private schools for the exceptional did not place any responses there. Despite this, there was a considerable spread of responses over the full range in all cases except university professors. Details are shown in Table 18.

## TABLE 17

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 2 (TRAINABLE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | - | - | 3 | 15 | 10 | 62 | 10 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | - | 2 | 2 | 6 | 19 | 58 | 13 |
| University Professors | - | - | 6 | 36 | 25 | 33 | - |
| School Superintendents | - | - | 5 | 19 | 27 | 41 | 8 |
| School Trustees | - | - | 9 | 5 | 18 | 68 | - |
| Private School Teachers | - | 8 | 4 | 8 | 13 | 63 | 4 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | - | 7 | 10 | 28 | 52 | 3 |
| Total Group | - | 1 | 4 | 14 | 19 | 54 | 7 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

## TABLE 18

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 3 (SEVERELY PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 1 | 3 | 1 | 9 | 23 | 58 | 4 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | - | 3 | 6 | 6 | 19 | 54 | 11 |
| University Professors | 8 | 11 | - | 6 | 31 | 44 | - |
| School Superintendents | 8 | 16 | 3 | 11 | 16 | 35 | 11 |
| School Trustees | - | 5 | 5 | 14 | 18 | 50 | 9 |
| Private School Teachers | 4 | 4 | 4 | 29 | - | 58 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 3 | 3 | 7 | 14 | 28 | 41 | 3 |
| Total Group | 3 | 6 | 4 | 11 | 20 | 50 | 6 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

## Item 4. Educable Mentally Retarded Children

The suggested placement of educable mentally retarded children on the basis of the overall group mean of 2.53 was in a special class for most of the day but integrated into the regular classroom for some subjects (Type D). Mean scores for the groups ranged from 2.08 for university faculty of education professors to 3.13 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Significant differences were found between teachers in private schools for the exceptional and each of regular classroom teachers, university professors and school superintendents, and also between special education teachers and professors. Rankings varied from 3 to 10 with a mean at 8. Regular classroom teachers and university professors both gave a ranking of 3, while special education teachers and school superintendents gave rankings of 9 and 10 respectively.

Responses were quite uniform within groups, with all groups making almost 80 per cent of responses as either regular class (Type C) or special class (Type D) placements, with Type C predominating; teachers in private schools for the exceptional were the exception. A significant number of regular class teachers, university professors, and school superintendents suggested placement in the regular class without any special modifications (Type A) as their preferred placement. Details are given in Table 19.

## Item 5. Socially Maladjusted Children

On the basis of the overall group mean of 4.51, the suggested form of placement for socially maladjusted children was in a campus-type special school(Type F). Mean group scores ranged from 3.72 for university faculty of education professors, and 3.76 for the parent/community group, to 4.81 for school superintendents. Rankings varied from 10th position for teachers

## TABLE 19

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 4 (EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| **Special Education Teachers** | 3 | 41 | 35 | 15 | 1 | 6 | - |
| **Regular Classroom Teachers** | 13 | 52 | 27 | 8 | - | - | - |
| **University Professors** | 19 | 58 | 17 | 6 | - | - | - |
| **School Superintendents** | 11 | 57 | 24 | 8 | - | - | - |
| **School Trustees** | 5 | 41 | 41 | 14 | - | - | - |
| **Private School Teachers** | 4 | 42 | 17 | 17 | 17 | 4 | - |
| **Parent/Community Group Members** | 3 | 62 | 21 | 14 | - | - | - |
| **Total Group** | 9 | 50 | 27 | 11 | 2 | 2 | - |

**Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services**
**Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type E: Full-time special class in regular school**
**Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school**
**Type G: Special school in separate location**
**Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems**

in private schools for the exceptional to 17th position for school superintendents, with a mean of 15. The analysis of variance was statistically significant (p = 0.01), but no significant differences were found between groups on the Scheffe test.

Responses were widely dispersed with no single response being higher than 38 per cent. Twenty seven per cent of school superintendents, 19 per cent of special education teachers, 18 per cent of school trustees and 14 per cent of regular classroom teachers suggested placement outside of the publicly supported school systems (Type B). Superintendents of schools also placed the highest percentage, 57 per cent, in the two segregated placement types, the campus-type segregated school (Type F), and the segregated special school (Type G). Details are shown in Table 20.

### Item 6. Hearing Impaired Children

The overall placement recommendation for hearing impaired children was in the regular class with supplementary services provided where necessary (Type C). The mean score for all groups was 2.49, but group means ranged from 2.14 for university faculty of education professors to 3.13 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Rankings were consistent for all groups, varying only from 5 to 8. Differences between teachers in private schools for the exceptional and each of university professors and school superintendents were significant on the Scheffe test.

Responses centred on regular class placement (Type C), with response rates for this type varying from 46 per cent for teachers in private schools for the exceptional, to 76 per cent for the parent/ community group. Once again teachers in private schools for the exceptional showed a very wide range of responses, as did special education teachers and school trustees. Results are shown in Table 21.

## TABLE 20

### PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 5 (SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 6 | 13 | 10 | 13 | 6 | 33 | 19 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 3 | 5 | 19 | 19 | 2 | 38 | 14 |
| University Professors | 11 | 28 | 8 | 14 | 17 | 14 | 8 |
| School Superintendents | 5 | 18 | 8 | 8 | 3 | 30 | 27 |
| School Trustees | - | 18 | 5 | 23 | 9 | 27 | 18 |
| Private School Teachers | 4 | 25 | 8 | 8 | 17 | 29 | 8 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | 24 | 24 | 21 | 17 | 10 | 3 |
| Total Group | 5 | 16 | 13 | 15 | 8 | 28 | 15 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

## TABLE 21

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

## ITEM 6 (HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 9 | 54 | 16 | 10 | 7 | 4 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 6 | 59 | 13 | 18 | 5 | - | - |
| University Professors | 17 | 67 | 6 | 8 | 3 | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 8 | 73 | 14 | 5 | - | - | - |
| School Trustees | 9 | 68 | 9 | 9 | - | 5 | - |
| Private School Teachers | 4 | 46 | 17 | 17 | 4 | 8 | 4 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 3 | 76 | 3 | 7 | 10 | - | - |
| Total Group | 8 | 62 | 12 | 11 | 5 | 2 | 1 |

**Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services**
**Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days**
**Type E: Full-time special class in regular school**
**Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school**
**Type G: Special school in separate location**
**Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems**

## Item 7. Children With Speech Defects

The recommended placement for children with speech defects was in a special class for most of the school day, but integrated with regular classes for certain subjects. The overall mean score was 3.00, while group means ranged from 2.67 for university faculty of education professors to 3.50 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Differences between groups were not statistically significant. The item was consistently ranked in 11th, 12th or 13th position, with 4 out of the 7 groups giving a ranking of 12.

Responses showed a consistency of preference for regular class (Type C) and special class (Type D) placements, with a majority in every case suggesting the special class with some integration with regular classes as the most suitable form of placement. However, 14 per cent of school trustees and 17 per cent of private school teachers of the exceptional suggested that the most appropriate placement was in a segregated special school (Type G). Details are given in Table 22.

## Item 8. Severely Learning Disabled Children

The form of placement recommended in this study for severely learning disabled children, shown by an overall group mean of 2.43, was in a regular class with necessary supplementary services provided (Type C). Group mean scores ranged from 2.11 to 2.92, indicating that no group recommended, on the basis of mean scores, a more segregated form of school placement than the semi-integrated special class (Type D). Rankings were consistently between 3rd and 6th positions except for school superintendents who gave a ranking of 11 and the parent/community group which gave a ranking of 8.

Analysis of the variances showed that the differences between group scores were statistically significant ($p = 0.005$), but the Scheffe

## TABLE 22

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

## ITEM 7 (SPEECH DEFECTIVE CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 4 | 42 | 22 | 16 | 9 | 7 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 6 | 33 | 29 | 19 | 8 | 5 | - |
| University Professors | 8 | 47 | 17 | 25 | 3 | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 3 | 43 | 35 | 14 | 3 | 3 | - |
| School Trustees | 14 | 32 | 18 | 14 | 9 | 14 | - |
| Private School Teachers | 4 | 33 | 13 | 25 | 8 | 17 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | 48 | 21 | 14 | 10 | 7 | - |
| Total Group | 5 | 40 | 23 | 18 | 7 | 7 | - |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

test revealed that only the difference between university faculty of education professors and teachers in private schools for the exceptional was significant.

Responses commonly suggested Type C placement, this being the use of regular classes but with supplementary services being available. This form of placement was suggested by 54 per cent of teachers in private schools for the exceptional and 78 per cent of university professors, the other groups falling within these two limits. Details are shown in Table 23.

Item 9. Deaf Children

The overall group response on this item indicated that deaf children should be placed in a segregated special school on the same campus as a regular school, the mean score being 5.06. Group means ranged from 4.75 for university faculty of education professors and 4.79 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional, to 5.36 for school trustees. Differences between group means were not statistically significant.

Rankings were consistently close to the average of 17th position, varying only between 16 and 18, indicating a high level of agreement between groups on the need for segregation for this type of child.

Responses were concentrated heavily in Type F (Campus-type special schools) and Type G (Segregated special schools) categories, with the latter predominating for special education teachers, regular classroom teachers, school superintendents, and teachers in private schools for the exceptional. University faculty of education professors suggested Type D placement, in a full-time special class within a regular school, as being the most appropriate for a deaf child. Nine per cent of school trustees, and 8 per cent of regular classroom

## TABLE 23

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

## ITEM 8 (SEVERELY LEARNING DISABLED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | - | 65 | 23 | 7 | - | 4 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | - | 70 | 22 | 8 | - | - | - |
| University Professors | 8 | 78 | 8 | 6 | - | - | - |
| School Superintendents | - | 76 | 19 | 3 | - | 3 | - |
| School Trustees | 9 | 68 | 18 | 5 | - | - | - |
| Private School Teachers | - | 54 | 17 | 13 | 17 | - | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | 72 | 14 | 3 | 7 | 3 | - |
| Total Group | 2 | 69 | 19 | 6 | 2 | 2 | - |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

teachers believed that deaf children should be educated outside the public school systems. Details are shown in Table 24.

### Item 10. Children With Heart Abnormalities

The overall mean score of 2.76 on this item suggested that children with physical impairments such as the heart abnormality described should be placed in a part-time special class and integrated with regular classes for part of the time. Group means varied from 1.97 for university faculty of education professors to 3.29 for teachers in private schools for the exceptional and 3.35 for the parent/community group. Differences on the total group were statistically significant ($p = 0.02$) but no significant between-group differences were discernible on the Scheffe test. The average ranking of this item was in position 11, but university professors gave a ranking of 5, considerably lower than the other groups.

Responses indicated a range of disagreement on the most desirable form of placement for this child beyond the initial agreement on placement in the regular class (Type A). Responses in category A ranged from 60 per cent for school superintendents and 58 per cent for university professors down to 21 per cent for the parent/community group. Details are given in Table 25.

### Item 11. Learning Disabled/Hyperactive Children

The form of placement for learning disabled/hyperactive children recommended by the total group was in a part-time special class (Type D), the mean score being 3.26. Group means varied from 2.62 for university faculty of education professors to 3.73 for school trustees. Differences between special education teachers and university professors, school trustees and university professors, and teachers in

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 9 (DEAF CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | - | 3 | 9 | 16 | 17 | 52 | 3 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | - | 2 | 3 | 25 | 19 | 43 | 8 |
| University Professors | - | 3 | 8 | 33 | 25 | 28 | 3 |
| School Superintendents | - | 3 | 14 | 22 | 14 | 50 | 3 |
| School Trustees | - | - | 5 | 9 | 41 | 36 | 9 |
| Private School Teachers | - | 8 | 13 | 17 | 21 | 38 | 4 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | - | 10 | 21 | 35 | 31 | 3 |
| Total Group | - | 3 | 8 | 21 | 22 | 41 | 5 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

TABLE 25

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 10 (CHILDREN WITH HEART ABNORMALITIES)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 45 | 12 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 20 | 1 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 44 | 11 | 3 | 11 | 11 | 18 | 2 |
| University Professors | 58 | 14 | 3 | 14 | - | 11 | - |
| School Superintendents | 60 | 14 | 8 | 14 | 3 | - | 3 |
| School Trustees | 27 | 23 | 9 | 9 | 23 | 9 | - |
| Private School Teachers | 29 | 17 | - | 21 | 17 | 17 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 21 | 17 | 17 | 21 | 7 | 10 | 7 |
| Total Group | 43 | 14 | 7 | 13 | 8 | 14 | 2 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

private schools for the exceptional and university professors, were statistically significant. Rankings were very consistent in either 12th or 13th positions.

The most common responses for all groups were Types C, D, and E, with the emphasis by most groups being placed on special class placement with some integration (Type D). Responses of this category ranged from 60 per cent for school superintendents to 23 per cent for school trustees, the latter being the only group to make their predominant placement a full-time special class in a regular school (Type E). Details are given in Table 26.

### Item 12. Emotionally Disturbed Children

The overall mean score of 4.37 for emotionally disturbed children suggested their placement in a full-time special class within a regular school (Type E). Group mean scores ranged from 3.50 for university faculty of education professors and 3.86 for the parent/community group, to 4.79 for regular classroom teachers and teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Between-group scores were statistically significant only for the difference between university professors and regular classroom teachers.

Rankings were very consistent with five groups out of the seven giving a ranking of 14th, while the other groups ranked the item in 15th and 16th positions.

Responses were extremely scattered however, although some concentration of scores suggested placement in a segregated special school (Type G). Approximately ten per cent of responses suggested placement outside the public school systems. Details are shown in Table 27.

## TABLE 26

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 11 (LEARNING DISABLED/HYPERACTIVE CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 1 | 12 | 44 | 30 | 3 | 10 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 6 | 21 | 35 | 24 | 8 | 6 | - |
| University Professors | 17 | 25 | 39 | 19 | - | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 3 | 22 | 60 | 16 | - | - | - |
| School Trustees | - | 14 | 23 | 41 | 23 | - | - |
| Private School Teachers | - | 21 | 33 | 21 | 13 | 13 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 3 | 28 | 38 | 14 | 7 | 10 | - |
| Total Group | 5 | 19 | 40 | 24 | 6 | 6 | - |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

## TABLE 27

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

## ITEM 12 (EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 4 | 19 | 9 | 19 | 10 | 29 | 10 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 3 | 13 | 6 | 19 | 11 | 33 | 14 |
| University Professors | 22 | 19 | 11 | 14 | 8 | 17 | 8 |
| School Superintendents | 5 | 14 | 16 | 19 | - | 32 | 14 |
| School Trustees | 5 | 14 | 18 | 14 | 5 | 36 | 9 |
| Private School Teachers | - | 8 | 13 | 25 | 13 | 29 | 10 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 3 | 28 | 21 | 10 | 14 | 14 | 10 |
| Total Group | 6 | 16 | 12 | 18 | 9 | 28 | 11 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

### Item 13. Blind Children

The mean score for the total group on this item was 4.88, suggesting placement of blind children in campus-type special schools. Mean scores for each of the groups ranged from 4.22 for university faculty of education professors to 5.20 for special education teachers. Most of the scores, however, were in the 4.60 to 4.85 range. Significant differences occurred between the scores of special education teachers and university professors, the two extreme scores, only. Rankings on this item were consistent, with five groups giving a ranking of 16th.

Responses were widely distributed but with the major concentration --28 per cent of responses--suggesting a segregated special school placement (Type G), as is shown in Table 28.

### Item 14. Epileptic Children

The epileptic child described in this item received the most integrated placement of all those included in the schedule, the item being given a total group mean score of 1.52. This suggested placement in a regular class with some supplementary services being provided where necessary. Group mean scores ranged from 1.08 for school superintendents to 2.32 for school trustees. Significant differences were found between the scores of university faculty of education professors and school trustees, school trustees and school superintendents, university professors and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, and superintendents and teachers in private schools for the exceptional. Results are shown in Table 29.

The item was ranked first by all groups except school trustees who ranked the item 4th. Type A placements, that is in a regular class with no changes to present procedures, were suggested by 92 per cent of

## TABLE 28

### PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS ITEM 13 (BLIND CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | – | 7 | 6 | 9 | 19 | 57 | 3 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | – | 6 | 5 | 18 | 19 | 46 | 6 |
| University Professors | 6 | 17 | 8 | 22 | 17 | 28 | 3 |
| School Superintendents | 3 | 5 | 22 | 14 | 11 | 46 | – |
| School Trustees | – | 9 | 18 | 9 | 18 | 36 | 9 |
| Private School Teachers | – | 17 | 8 | – | 33 | 42 | – |
| Parent/Community Group Members | – | 7 | 14 | 14 | 24 | 35 | 7 |
| Total Group | 1 | 9 | 10 | 13 | 19 | 44 | 4 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

## TABLE 29

### PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 14 (EPILEPTIC CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 83 | 10 | 1 | - | 3 | 3 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 73 | 13 | - | 5 | 3 | 6 | - |
| University Professors | 89 | 11 | - | - | - | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 92 | 8 | - | - | - | - | - |
| School Trustees | 55 | 18 | - | 9 | 9 | 5 | 5 |
| Private School Teachers | 58 | 17 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 8 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 79 | 17 | - | - | - | - | 3 |
| Total Group | 78 | 13 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

school superintendents and 89 per cent of university faculty of education professors; more diverse responses were indicated by school trustees and teachers in private schools for the exceptional.

Item 15. Visually Impaired Children

The mean score for the total group on this item was 2.62, suggesting a part-time special class placement (Type D) as being the most appropriate for visually impaired children. Differences were statistically significant between the scores of special education teachers and school superintendents, regular classroom teachers and school superintendents, university faculty of education professors and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, school superintendents and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, and school superintendents and the parent/community group.

Rankings of 8, 9, or 10 were given by all groups except university professors and school superintendents, both of whom placed the item in third position.

Responses were heavily concentrated in placement types A and C, indicating regular class placement with or without supplementary services. The range of responses for university professors was narrower than for the other groups. Details are given in Table 30.

Item 16. Educable Mentally Retarded Children

The total group placement recommendation for educable mentally retarded children on the basis of this item was in a part-time special class (Type D). The mean score was 2.66, significant (p = 0.000006) for differences between the groups, whose mean scores ranged from 2.11 to 3.33. Differences between the scores of special education teachers and each of regular classroom teachers, university faculty of education

## TABLE 30

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS ITEM 15 (VISUALLY IMPAIRED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 22 | 28 | 17 | 16 | 7 | 10 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 24 | 30 | 14 | 19 | 8 | 3 | 2 |
| University Professors | 42 | 28 | 14 | 14 | 3 | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 38 | 54 | 5 | 3 | - | - | - |
| School Trustees | 23 | 36 | 14 | 14 | 5 | 9 | - |
| Private School Teachers | 13 | 33 | 4 | 25 | 13 | 13 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 7 | 45 | 17 | 17 | 7 | 7 | - |
| Total Group | 25 | 35 | 13 | 15 | 6 | 6 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

professors and school superintendents; between university professors and teachers in private schools for the exceptional; and between school superintendents and each of regular classroom teachers and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, were significant.

Rankings varied considerably on this item, from 12th position by special education teachers to 5th position by regular classroom teachers and university professors. Responses were predominantly Type C, suggesting placement in regular classes with supplementary services provided. The percentage of responses suggesting this placement type ranged from 70 per cent for university professors to 35 per cent for special education teachers. Results are indicated in Table 31.

### Item 17. Multiply Handicapped Children

The recommended form of placement for multiply handicapped children such as the one described in this item was in a campus-type special school (Type F), the overall mean score being 5.41. No significant differences occurred between groups.

Rankings varied only slightly, from 18th to 20th positions, with four out of the seven groups giving a ranking of 20. All groups made placement in a segregated special school (Type G) the modal placement recommendation, and up to 10 per cent suggested that such a child should be educated outside of the public school systems. Results are given in Table 32.

### Item 18. Learning Disabled Children

All groups indicated on this item that the most suitable placement of learning disabled children was for them to be integrated into a regular class and receive supplementary services as required (Type C). The mean score was 2.37 for the total group, with individual group means

TABLE 31

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 16 (EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 7 | 35 | 23 | 20 | 1 | 13 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 18 | 23 | 22 | 14 | 3 | - | - |
| University Professors | 25 | 53 | 11 | 8 | 3 | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 3 | 70 | 27 | - | - | - | - |
| School Trustees | 5 | 50 | 27 | 5 | 9 | - | 5 |
| Private School Teachers | - | 38 | 21 | 17 | 21 | 4 | - |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 3 | 62 | 24 | 3 | 3 | 3 | - |
| Total Group | 10 | 48 | 22 | 11 | 4 | 4 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

TABLE 32

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 17 (MULTIPLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | - | - | 4 | 10 | 17 | 59 | 9 |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 2 | - | 3 | 18 | 11 | 57 | 10 |
| University Professors | - | - | 8 | 25 | 19 | 44 | 3 |
| School Superintendents | - | - | 8 | 19 | 14 | 54 | 5 |
| School Trustees | - | - | - | 18 | 18 | 55 | 9 |
| Private School Teachers | 4 | - | 4 | 4 | 29 | 50 | 8 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | - | - | 7 | 10 | 35 | 41 | 7 |
| Total Group | 1 | - | 5 | 15 | 19 | 53 | 8 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

ranging from 2.08 to 2.86. Differences between groups were not significant.

Rankings ranged from 2nd for regular classroom teachers and the parent/community group, to 10th for school trustees, with the mean score being ranked third. Responses were heavily concentrated on placement in a regular class with supplementary services being available (Type C). Scores on this response ranged from 89 per cent for school superintendents to 55 per cent for school trustees. Details are shown in Table 33.

### Item 19. Gifted/Artistic Children

The recommended form of placement overall for gifted/artistic children was integrated into a regular classroom with supplementary services available (Type C). The overall mean score was 2.40; only differences between the scores of special education teachers and school superintendents were significant.

Rankings varied quite considerably, with most groups giving low rankings of 2, 3, or 4; university faculty of education professors, however, ranked this item 11th. Responses showed a large variation also, with the two most commonly suggested placements being in a regular class without (Type A) or with (Type C) supplementary services being made available. Details are given in Table 34.

### Item 20. Mildly Physically Handicapped Children

The form of placement recommended for children with mild physical handicaps was in a regular class with supplementary services being made available. The overall mean score was 2.15, with group scores ranging from 1.50 for university faculty of education professors to 2.62 for regular classroom teachers. This item was ranked either first or

## TABLE 33

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

### ITEM 18 (LEARNING DISABLED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 7 | 58 | 19 | 7 | 3 | 6 | – |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 18 | 60 | 8 | 14 | – | – | – |
| University Professors | 8 | 81 | 3 | 6 | 3 | – | – |
| School Superintendents | 3 | 89 | 5 | 3 | – | – | – |
| School Trustees | – | 55 | 27 | 5 | 9 | – | 5 |
| Private School Teachers | – | 67 | 13 | 17 | 4 | – | – |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 10 | 59 | 17 | 14 | – | – | – |
| Total Group | 8 | 66 | 13 | 9 | 2 | 1 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

TABLE 34

PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

ITEM 19 (GIFTED/ARTISTIC CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 16 | 45 | 13 | 9 | 10 | 7 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 16 | 51 | 13 | 16 | 3 | 2 | - |
| University Professors | 22 | 47 | 17 | 11 | - | 3 | - |
| School Superintendents | 43 | 51 | 3 | - | - | - | 3 |
| School Trustees | 32 | 46 | 14 | 5 | 5 | - | - |
| Private School Teachers | 25 | 29 | 13 | 17 | 13 | - | 4 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 31 | 31 | 14 | 14 | 10 | - | - |
| Total Group | 24 | 45 | 12 | 10 | 6 | 3 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

second by all groups except regular classroom teachers who ranked it as ninth. Responses, which are shown in Table 35, were most commonly given as either Type A or Type C, being regular class placement with or without supplementary services, although some groups did give a much wider spread to their responses.

## Comparison of Results on Similar Items

Certain of the items in the Schedule can be paired because they describe basically similar types of exceptional children. It could be expected that the recommended form of school placement for each pair of items would be consistent over the two items, so to investigate this, each pair is now considered.

Items 1 and 19 both referred to gifted children. The recommended placement for item 1 was a part-time special class, while for item 19 it was a regular class with supplementary services being provided. The mean score for item 1 was 2.50 and for item 19 it was 2.40. Possibly this small difference between the two placements can be attributed to the fact that item 1 emphasized that a bright, gifted child can still be disruptive in class.

Items 2 and 17 both described trainable mentally retarded children, although the child described in item 17 was also deaf. The recommended form of placement for both children was in a campus-type special school, with mean scores of 5.42 and 5.41 respectively. These scores are very close to each other indeed.

Items 4 and 16 both described educable mentally retarded children. Mean scores for the two items were 2.53 and 2.66 respectively. Overall placement recommendations for both items suggested that such children should be placed in special classes and integrated with non-exceptional

## TABLE 35

## PERCENTAGE OF GROUP RESPONSES INDICATING VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOL PLACEMENTS

## ITEM 20 (MILDLY PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN)

| Group | Percentage of Responses | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Type A | Type C | Type D | Type E | Type F | Type G | Type B |
| Special Education Teachers | 39 | 39 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 7 | - |
| Regular Classroom Teachers | 44 | 22 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 13 | 2 |
| University Professors | 61 | 33 | 3 | - | 3 | - | - |
| School Superintendents | 65 | 24 | - | - | 8 | 3 | - |
| School Trustees | 41 | 50 | 5 | - | - | 5 | - |
| Private School Teachers | 38 | 33 | 4 | 8 | 4 | 8 | 4 |
| Parent/Community Group Members | 21 | 62 | 3 | 3 | - | 7 | 3 |
| Total Group | 45 | 35 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 7 | 1 |

Type A: Regular class, no supplementary services
Type C: Regular class, supplementary services for certain subjects and up to half days
Type D: Special class, integrated for certain subjects and up to half days
Type E: Full-time special class in regular school
Type F: Special school but on same campus as regular school
Type G: Special school in separate location
Type B: Not the responsibility of the public school systems

children for up to half of each day.

Items 5 and 12 described children with behavioral or emotional problems. Recommended placement for item 5 was in a campus-type special school, while for item 12 the suggested placement was in a full-time special class in a regular school. Mean scores were nevertheless very close at 4.51 and 4.37 respectively.

Items 6, 14, and 20 all referred to children with minor physical problems; so did items 10 and 15. The first group was recommended for placement in regular classes, while items 10 and 15 were placed in special classes and integrated with regular classes for part of the time.

Items 3, 9, and 13 all described more serious physical or sensory problems, and these were allocated to campus-type special schools. Mean scores for these three items were 5.13, 5.06, and 4.88 respectively.

Children with learning disabilities, as described in items 8 and 18, were placed in regular classes, the mean score for item 8 being 2.43 and for item 18 it was 2.37; again, these scores are very similar. The hyperactive/learning disabled child described in item 11 and the speech handicapped child described in item 7 were both placed in special classes and integrated with regular classes for part of the time. The mean score for item 11 was 3.26 and for item 7 it was 3.00.

There is evident in the above comparisons a consistent relationship between items describing similar types of exceptionality in children; in almost every case where it could be expected that certain items should receive a similar form of school placement, this has in fact been the case.

## Summary and Discussion

Results obtained on Part II of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children have been described. It was found, when mean scores of each group on the total twenty items were considered, that university faculty of education professors and school superintendents were most in favor of integrating exceptional children into regular classes while special education teachers within the public school systems and teachers in private schools for the exceptional were least in favor of such a development.

This result could indicate that educators most in favor of the integration of exceptional children into regular classes feel this way because they do not have to face the responsibility of teaching the integrated classes. It may be that integration is a move that is good in theory but not acceptable in practice. Alternatively, it could be that educators who are more remote from the actual classroom situation can see the total perspective more clearly and understand better the ramifications of any move towards integration. Possibly, too, teachers of special classes in both types of systems, publicly-supported and private, may be less in favor of integration because they see their familiar world being broken down and their security threatened.

Because of the diversity of types of exceptional children included in the study, it was also necessary to examine the results of each item in the schedule individually. Results clearly indicated that none of the groups included in the study was prepared to advocate the integration of severely exceptional children into regular classes or schools, but that they were in favor of at least semi-integration for mildly exceptional children. Those who were considered to be severely exceptional and who were placed therefore in campus-type special schools or segregated special schools were the trainable mentally retarded, the severely physically handicapped, the deaf, the blind, and the multiply handicapped. Those considered most suitable for integration into regular classes were the epileptic, the mildly physically handicapped, and the learning disabled.

In almost every case, there was considerable variation within groups concerning the type of placement suggested for each item, and this provided some difficulties in interpreting the results. For example, the group mean used for the purpose of comparison between groups was not necessarily the most common response given, only the mean of all responses.

Frequently, the diversity of opinion within groups was restricted to movement between two or three adjoining categories. However, in other items such as those describing socially and emotionally disturbed children (items 5 and 12), and those with physical or sensory impairments such as deafness (item 9) and blindness (item 13), there was a much wider spread of responses. This could have occurred because traditionally these children have been segregated, and it is possible that some respondents would respond on the basis of past experience with similar children. At the same time, it is these areas of exceptionality that are increasingly being accepted as appropriate for integration (Connor, 1976), and hence respondents aware of these moves could be more willing to place these children into less restrictive environments than has traditionally been the practice.

A summary of the form of school placement recommended based upon overall mean scores for each item is given in Table 36.

## TABLE 36

## SUMMARY OF SUGGESTED FORMS OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT FOR ALL ITEMS, PART II OF SCHEDULE

| Type of Exceptional Child | Item | Ranking | Placement Recommendation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gifted | 1 | 7 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Trainable mentally retarded | 2 | 20 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Severely physically handic. | 3 | 18 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Educable mentally retarded | 4 | 8 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Socially maladjusted | 5 | 15 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Hearing impaired | 6 | 6 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |
| Speech defective | 7 | 12 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Severely learning disabled | 8 | 5 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |
| Deaf | 9 | 17 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Heart abnormality | 10 | 11 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Learning disabled | 11 | 13 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Emotionally disturbed | 12 | 14 | Full-time special class in regular school |
| Blind | 13 | 16 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Epileptic | 14 | 1 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |
| Visually impaired | 15 | 9 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Educable mentally retarded | 16 | 10 | Part-time special class, some integration into regular classes |
| Multiply handicapped | 17 | 19 | Campus-type separate special school placement |
| Learning disabled | 18 | 3 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |
| Gifted/artistic | 19 | 4 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |
| Mildly physically handic. | 20 | 2 | Integrated into regular class, supplementary services provided |

Placement recommendation is based on the total-group mean score for each item in the Schedule

## PART III

Data obtained on Part III of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children were concerned with discovering the level of knowledge shown by members of each group of selected concepts in the field of special education. There were 20 items in this part of the schedule, the total number of correct responses being taken as an indication of the amount of knowledge of each respondent on the items included. Scores were then averaged for each group.

Group mean scores ranged from 12.24 items correct, out of the total of 20, for superintendents of schools, and 10.97 correct for university faculty of education professors, to 8.17 for teachers of regular classrooms. Actual scores obtained, and the ranking of groups on the basis of these scores, are shown in Table 37.

TABLE 37

MEAN SCORES FOR RESPONDENT GROUPS ON PART III, SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE (KNOWLEDGE OF SELECTED CONCEPTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION)

| Group | N | $\bar{X}$ | S.D. | $s^2$ | Ranking |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Special education teachers | 67 | 10.06 | 2.42 | 5.85 | 3 |
| Regular classroom teachers | 63 | 8.17 | 2.47 | 6.08 | 7 |
| University professors | 35 | 10.97 | 3.10 | 9.62 | 2 |
| School superintendents | 37 | 12.24 | 2.18 | 4.74 | 1 |
| School trustees | 23 | 9.96 | 3.11 | 9.68 | 4 |
| Private school teachers | 24 | 8.88 | 2.29 | 5.24 | 6 |
| Parent/community group | 29 | 9.45 | 2.98 | 8.90 | 5 |
| Total group | 278 | 9.86 | 2.88 | 8.30 | - |

$p = 0.0$

The analysis of variance technique indicated the presence of statistically significant differences between groups ($p = 0.0$). The Scheffe Multiple Comparison of Means test showed that differences significant at the $p < 0.1$ level occurred between: (a) special education teachers and regular classroom teachers; (b) special education teachers and school superintendents; (c) regular classroom teachers and university faculty of education professors; (d) regular classroom teachers and school superintendents; (e) school trustees and school superintendents; (f) school superintendents and teachers in private schools for the exceptional; and (g) school superintendents and the parent/community group. Details of values obtained on the Scheffe test are given in Table 38.

Responses to individual items in Part III of the questionnaire varied considerably as is evidenced by the percentage of correct responses obtained by each group and the total group. The total number of correct responses on each item for each of the groups is shown in Table 39.

The highest percentage of correct responses overall was 93 per cent on item 20. This item stated:

> 20. An educational program providing for the needs of all exceptional children would include those classed as gifted as well as those regarded as handicapped.
> True False Don't Know

The high number of correct responses on this item probably underlie a very clear concern for the importance of effectively meeting the needs of the gifted child which was also evident in other parts of the questionnaire results. The item with the second highest number of correct responses, 87 per cent, was item 15, which stated:

> 15. If a child attends a resource-room type of class, he probably attends a regular class as well.
> True False Don't Know

This question reflects a common means of providing for exceptional children in Alberta, and therefore would probably be well known to those teaching in the public school systems. Not surprisingly, therefore, the

## TABLE 38

## PROBABILITY MATRIX FOR SCHEFFE MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF MEANS, PART III OF SCHEDULE

## (KNOWLEDGE OF SELECTED CONCEPTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION)

| Group | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Special Education teachers | 1.00 | | | | | | |
| Regular classroom teachers | *0.01 | 1.00 | | | | | |
| University professors | 0.83 | *0.00 | 1.00 | | | | |
| School superintendents | *0.01 | *0.00 | 0.64 | 1.00 | | | |
| School trustees | 1.00 | 0.25 | 0.91 | *0.09 | 1.00 | | |
| Private school teachers | 0.72 | 0.97 | 0.17 | *0.00 | 0.92 | 1.00 | |
| Parent/community group | 0.98 | 0.58 | 0.49 | *0.01 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 |

* denotes score where $p < 0.10$

## TABLE 39

## PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT RESPONSES BY RESPONDENT GROUPS, PART III OF SCHEDULE

(KNOWLEDGE OF SELECTED CONCEPTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION)

| Item No. | Percentage of Correct Responses | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total Group |
| 1 | 32 | 19 | 36 | 60 | 26 | 25 | 17 | 30 |
| 2 | 81 | 79 | 83 | 78 | 61 | 67 | 79 | 78 |
| 3 | 35 | 27 | 36 | 54 | 17 | 29 | 17 | 32 |
| 4 | 39 | 24 | 53 | 70 | 52 | 42 | 48 | 44 |
| 5 | 86 | 70 | 86 | 95 | 83 | 83 | 86 | 84 |
| 6 | 7 | 5 | 14 | 11 | 22 | 4 | 14 | 10 |
| 7 | 51 | 46 | 50 | 54 | 52 | 42 | 66 | 51 |
| 8 | 19 | 5 | 17 | 11 | 26 | 13 | 7 | 13 |
| 9 | 13 | 3 | 22 | 38 | 26 | 29 | 28 | 19 |
| 10 | 51 | 38 | 36 | 32 | 61 | 67 | 59 | 48 |
| 11 | 51 | 56 | 64 | 54 | 52 | 46 | 62 | 55 |
| 12 | 36 | 29 | 39 | 97 | 52 | 29 | 28 | 42 |
| 13 | 28 | 10 | 19 | 11 | 35 | 13 | 7 | 18 |
| 14 | 42 | 37 | 53 | 60 | 44 | 29 | 48 | 44 |
| 15 | 90 | 78 | 100 | 97 | 83 | 67 | 90 | 87 |
| 16 | 80 | 79 | 92 | 95 | 78 | 79 | 76 | 83 |
| 17 | 71 | 75 | 86 | 87 | 70 | 71 | 69 | 76 |
| 18 | 41 | 32 | 58 | 68 | 44 | 58 | 35 | 46 |
| 19 | 32 | 13 | 31 | 62 | 17 | 13 | 24 | 28 |
| 20 | 94 | 95 | 94 | 92 | 96 | 83 | 90 | 94 |

lowest score of 67 per cent correct responses was obtained by teachers in private schools for the exceptional.

At the other extreme, very low scores were registered on items 6, 8, 9, and 13. These were:

6. The Cascade Model is a plan for providing an effective program for exceptional children in as integrated setting as possible.

True False Don't Know

8. The mainstreaming movement for the placement of exceptional children in regular classes wherever possible is common in the United States but is not really apparent in other parts of the world.

True False Don't Know

9. It is less costly to provide for exceptional children in integrated settings than in segregated classes or schools.

True False Don't Know

13. The Zero Reject concept developed by Lilly made the assumption that when a child fails to learn it is the fault of the education system and not the child.

True False Don't Know

Two of those items, numbers 6 and 13, were meant to have significance to respondents who had done some reading in the area of special education delivery systems. Both items were statements of fact, yet for item 6, the highest percentage of correct responses was 22 per cent obtained by school trustees and 14 per cent obtained by both university faculty of education professors and the parent/community group. The lowest percentages of 5 per cent and 4 per cent were obtained by regular classroom teachers and teachers in private schools for the exceptional, respectively. For item 13, the highest number of correct responses was 35 per cent for school trustees and 28 per cent for special education teachers, while the lowest rates were 7 per cent for the parent/community group, 10 per cent for regular classroom teachers, and 11 per cent for school superintendents. Overall results showed 10 per cent correct for item 6 and 18 per cent correct for item 13.

Items 8 and 9 were difficult questions to interpret. Item 8 was intended to reflect the attitude that mainstreaming was a phenonemon of the United States with little or no relevance to school systems in other parts of the world. This attitude was sometimes found when interviewing individual teachers about mainstreaming. Twenty six per cent of school trustees, 19 per cent of special education teachers, and 17 per cent of university faculty of education professors, stated that this was so. The overall response was 13 per cent correct.

Item 9 was designed to distinguish between those who saw mainstreaming as an economical way of providing for special education as compared with the view expressed in this study that, in order to be effective, mainstreaming requires a heavy financial commitment. School superintendents, with 38 per cent correct responses, agreed most with this concept, while regular classroom teachers, with only 3 per cent correct, did not do so. The overall response rate was 19 per cent correct.

## COMPARISON OF RESULTS OBTAINED BY MEMBERS OF GROUPS ON PART II AND PART III OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

Results obtained on Part II of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children, which indicated attitudes towards forms of school placement, and the level of knowledge of respondents of special education as indicated by Part III of the schedule, were compared to determine if there was any relationship between these two factors. The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient was used for this purpose and a coefficient of 0.54 was obtained. This indicated a small but significant relationship between the knowledge of special education shown by group members and their likelihood to favor an integrated form of school placement for exceptional children. The rankings of groups on the mean scores obtained on each of these two parts of the questionnaire are shown in Table 40.

TABLE 40

CORRELATION BETWEEN RANKINGS OF RESPONDENT GROUPS ON PART II (SCHOOL PLACEMENT ATTITUDES) AND PART III (KNOWLEDGE OF SELECTED CONCEPTS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION) OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

| Group | Part II | | Part III | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\bar{X}$ | Rank | $\bar{X}$ | Rank |
| Special education teachers | 3.56 | 6 | 10.06 | 3 |
| Regular classroom teachers | 3.48 | 4 | 8.17 | 7 |
| University professors | 2.90 | 1 | 10.97 | 2 |
| School superintendents | 3.06 | 2 | 12.24 | 1 |
| School trustees | 3.50 | 5 | 9.96 | 4 |
| Private school teachers | 3.67 | 7 | 8.88 | 6 |
| Parent/community group | 3.35 | 3 | 9.45 | 5 |

Rho = 0.54

Thus it is likely that the more knowledge respondents have of special education, the more they will favor the placement of exceptional children in the least restrictive environment. A causal relationship between the two concepts is not implied; knowledge may influence placement attitudes, or vice versa; or alternatively, other factors may be involved in this complex situation. It is sufficient for the purposes of this study to note that some relationship is shown between knowledge of special education and school placement attitudes.

## PART IV

Part IV of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children was designed to provide data concerning the influence a number of interest groups were perceived by members of the groups included in this study to hold over public policy making. The interest groups named in this section varied slightly from those used elsewhere in the study, the most noticeable inclusion being the provincial Department of Education in Alberta.

Respondents were asked to indicate the amount of influence they believed each interest group possessed over public policy making using the following numerical rating scale:

1. Little or no influence
2. Some influence
3. Quite a bit of influence
4. A great deal of influence
5. A very great deal of influence

There were two sections to this part; the first section dealt with educational policy making in general, while the second one dealt with policy making specifically in the area of the school placement of exceptional children. Each section is discussed separately, and some comparisons are then drawn between the results obtained on each.

## Section (a) General Policy Making in Education

In this section, respondents were asked to indicate the amount of influence they perceived a number of interest groups held over public policy making in the general area of education within the province of Alberta. Mean scores were calculated for each group and are shown in Table 41, while the ranking of groups on the basis of these mean scores, the highest score indicating the most influence and therefore being ranked first, is shown in Table 42.

Several observations can be made from a study of these rankings. They include:

1. The provincial Department of Education was seen by all groups

## TABLE 41

### MEAN INFLUENCE LEVEL OF INTEREST GROUPS AS PERCEIVED BY RESPONDENT GROUPS ON PART IV (SECTION A) OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE (GENERAL POLICY MAKING IN EDUCATION)

| Interest Group | Group Mean Scores (Level of Influence) * | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total Group |
| Alberta Teachers' Association | 2.78 | 2.71 | 3.38 | 3.08 | 3.61 | 2.68 | 3.17 | 2.98 |
| University Faculty of Education | 2.49 | 2.60 | 2.32 | 2.62 | 2.96 | 2.86 | 2.97 | 2.63 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | 2.62 | 2.59 | 2.68 | 2.60 | 3.09 | 2.91 | 2.86 | 2.71 |
| Alberta School Trustees' Assocn | 2.79 | 2.97 | 3.15 | 2.95 | 3.48 | 2.64 | 3.03 | 2.97 |
| Private Schools | 1.54 | 1.54 | 1.44 | 1.81 | 1.70 | 2.36 | 1.76 | 1.67 |
| Parent Groups | 2.48 | 2.33 | 2.41 | 2.41 | 1.91 | 2.23 | 2.31 | 2.34 |
| Community Groups | 2.21 | 2.16 | 2.21 | 2.16 | 1.61 | 2.04 | 1.52 | 2.05 |
| Department of Education | 4.37 | 4.27 | 4.62 | 4.43 | 4.61 | 3.68 | 4.38 | 4.35 |

* Higher mean scores indicate greater perceived influence

## TABLE 42

### RANKING OF INTEREST GROUPS ACCORDING TO MEAN SCORES OBTAINED ON PART IV (SECTION A) OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE (GENERAL POLICY MAKING IN EDUCATION)

| Interest Group | Group Rankings (Level of Influence) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superintendents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total of Ranks |
| Alberta Teachers' Association | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 17 |
| University Faculty of Education | 5 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 33 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 29 |
| Alberta School Trustees' Assocn | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 20 |
| Private Schools | 8 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 7 | 52 |
| Parent Groups | 6 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 6 | 42 |
| Community Groups | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 52 |
| Department of Education | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |

as having by far the most influence over government policy making in education, being ranked first in all cases.

2. The Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) and the Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.) were seen as being approximately equal in influence, with the A.T.A. slightly ahead on the basis of the sum of all rankings; rankings totalled 17 for the A.T.A. and 20 for the A.S.T.A.

3. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.) and the University Faculty of Education were also perceived to have about an equal amount of influence on the basis of the mean responses made; when rankings were summed, C.A.S.S. received a total of 29 and the university faculty of education a total of 33.

4. Private schools were seen as having the least influence by four groups out of the seven. However, they rated themselves fifth, ahead of both parent and community groups.

5. Members of the Alberta Teachers' Association as represented in the sample by both regular classroom teachers and special education teachers, ranked parent groups almost as high as their own group. Members of the Alberta School Trustees' Association and the parent/community group regarded parent groups as being much lower in influence than the A.T.A.

6. By all groups except the parent/community group, general community groups were ranked quite close to, but usually below, the general parent groups.

### Section (b) Policy Making Relating to Placement of Exceptional Children

In the second section of Part IV of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate the amount of influence they believed a number of interest groups held over public policy making in the specific policy area of the school placement of exceptional children. Some of the interest groups named in this section were slightly different to those used in Section (a) in that they were oriented towards special education more specifically rather than towards education in general. For example, the parent group was altered to read "parents of exceptional children;" the term "private school" was altered to read "private schools for the exceptional;" and a separate category was added for "other parent groups." These alterations produced some interesting variations in the responses.

The results obtained on this section of the schedule are shown in Table 43, while the ranking given to each of the interest groups on the basis of these results is shown in Table 44.

Some comparisons can be drawn between results obtained on the first and second section of this part of the schedule; these include:

1. The level of influence of the Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.) was seen as approximately the same on both sections, but the level of influence of a number of other groups was higher on section (b) than on section (a). This meant that, overall, the position of the A.T.A. was not as significant for section (b) as it was for section (a).

2. As ranked by four groups out of the seven, the level of influence of the university faculty of education was rated higher on section (b) than on section (a). For example, regular classroom teachers perceived a lower influence score for university faculty of 2.60 in the general area of educational policy making in contrast to a perceived influence level of 2.86 in the matter of the school placement of exceptional children.

3. The level of influence ascribed to the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents tended to be the same, although it was scored at a higher level by the parent/community group members and by superintendents

## TABLE 43

### MEAN INFLUENCE LEVEL OF INTEREST GROUPS AS PERCEIVED BY RESPONDENT GROUPS ON PART IV (SECTION B) OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE (POLICY MAKING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION)

| Interest Group | Group Mean Scores (Level of Influence)* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total Group |
| Alberta Teachers' Association | 2.67 | 2.84 | 3.35 | 2.76 | 3.35 | 2.91 | 3.17 | 2.93 |
| University Faculty of Education | 2.67 | 2.86 | 2.82 | 2.76 | 2.83 | 2.86 | 2.97 | 2.80 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | 2.69 | 2.56 | 2.47 | 2.97 | 3.17 | 2.91 | 3.14 | 2.77 |
| Alberta School Trustees Assocn | 2.57 | 2.87 | 3.00 | 2.97 | 3.30 | 2.73 | 3.00 | 2.86 |
| Private Schools for Exceptional | 2.57 | 3.02 | 2.38 | 2.43 | 3.00 | 3.41 | 2.52 | 2.73 |
| Parents of Exceptional Children | 3.27 | 2.76 | 3.32 | 3.27 | 2.91 | 3.13 | 2.72 | 3.06 |
| Other Parent Organizations | 2.42 | 2.16 | 2.35 | 2.11 | 1.52 | 2.59 | 2.07 | 2.21 |
| Community Organizations | 2.34 | 2.14 | 2.18 | 1.87 | 1.52 | 2.22 | 1.66 | 2.06 |
| Department of Education | 4.03 | 4.05 | 4.38 | 4.00 | 4.22 | 4.09 | 4.35 | 4.13 |

*The higher mean score indicates greater influence a particular interest group is perceived to have by members of groups included in the study

## TABLE 44

## RANKING OF INTEREST GROUPS ACCORDING TO MEAN SCORES ON PART IV (SECTION B) OF SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE (POLICY MAKING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION)

| Interest Group | Group Rankings (Level of Influence)* | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Special Education Teachers | Regular Classroom Teachers | University Professors | School Superint -endents | School Trustees | Private School Teachers | Parent/ Community Group | Total of Ranks |
| Alberta Teachers' Association | 4 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 24 |
| University Faculty of Education | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 36 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | 3 | 7 | 6 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 30 |
| Alberta School Trustees' Assocn | 6 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 30 |
| Private Schools for Exceptional | 6 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 35 |
| Parents of Exceptional Children | 2 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 28 |
| Other Parent Organizations | 7 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 8 | 54 |
| Community Organizations | 8 | 9 | 9 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 60 |
| Department of Education | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |

*Rankings are based on group mean scores on Section B of Part IV of the School Placement Schedule themselves. C.A.S.S. was however scored at a lower level in section (b) when compared to its score in section (a) by members of the A.S.T.A.

4. The influence of the Alberta School Trustees' Association was recorded at a lower level in section (b) by five out of the seven groups including the school trustees themselves.

5. Private schools, when referred to specifically in the second section as "private schools for the exceptional' were given a higher perceived influence score. The score indicated by regular classroom teachers was 1.54 for private schools in general and 3.12 on their perception of the influence of private schools for the exceptional. For members of the A.S.T.A., the scores were 1.70 and 3.00 respectively. Also, self-ratings were indicated as 2.37 and 3.41 respectively.

6. In the second section, parent groups were divided into those relating to exceptional children, and "other" parent groups. Those groups representing parents of exceptional children were seen as being much more powerful than parent groups generally. Scores were 2.41 on section (a) and 3.32 on section (b) for university faculty of education professors, 2.31 and 3.27 respectively for school superintendents, and 1.91 and 2.91 for members of the A.S.T.A. Groups representing "other" parent organizations showed little difference on scores for the two sections.

7. Community groups tended to obtain a lower score on section (b) of the schedule than on section (a), while the provincial department of education continued to be by far the most influential of all interest groups in the study.

## COMPARISON OF RESULTS ON PART III (KNOWLEDGE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION) AND PART IV (PERCEIVED INFLUENCE IN SPECIAL EDUCATION),SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

Data obtained on Part III of the school placement schedule and that obtained from section (b) of Part IV of the schedule were compared to ascertain if there was any relationship between the amount of knowledge that interest group members displayed in a particular field and the amount of influence that the interest group was perceived to have over public policy making in that field. Because there were some differences in the actual groups used in the two parts, it was not possible to do any statistical treatment of data on the two parts. For example, in Part III of the questionnaire, the Alberta Teachers' Association was divided into two groups, regular classroom teachers and special education teachers. In Part IV of the questionnaire, the organization was included as a single unit.

Nevertheless, a study of the rankings indicated that there would be little likelihood of there being any significant correlation between the influence of the groups and the amount of knowledge their members showed in the area of special education. For example, superintendents of schools ranked first on knowledge and third on influence; university professors ranked second on knowledge and sixth on influence; regular classroom teachers ranked seventh on knowledge yet the A.T.A. ranked first in influence. The actual rankings of each group on the results obtained on the two parts of the schedule are given in Table 4 5.

On the basis of these rankings, the conclusion can be drawn that there is no apparent relationship between the amount of knowledge shown by members of interest groups on a subject and the perceived influence level of that group over public policy making in that subject area.

TABLE 45

COMPARISON OF RANKINGS OF INTEREST GROUPS ON BASIS OF LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AND INFLUENCE ON POLICY MAKING IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

| Respondent Group | Ranking Part III | Ranking Part IVB | Interest Group |
|---|---|---|---|
| Special Education teachers | 3 ) | 1 | Alberta Teachers' Assocn |
| Regular Classroom teachers | 7 ) | | |
| University professors | 2 | 6 | University Faculty of Educ. |
| School Superintendents | 1 | 3.5 | Conference of Alberta School Superintendents |
| School Trustees | 4 | 3.5 | Alberta School Trustees' Association |
| Teachers in Private School for the Exceptional | 6 | 5 | Private Schools for the Exceptional |
| Parent/community group | 5 | 2 | Groups of parents of Exceptional Children |

This is somewhat contradictory to the claim made earlier in this study that influence is subject-specific. However, this may be partly explained by noting that all of the groups in this study were actively involved in the educational process, even if only as parents. Thus, differences between the amount of influence of each group as perceived to be due to this variable would probably be minimal. If an additional interest group had been added which had no relationship to education at all, the position may have been somewhat different.

## COMPARISON BETWEEN DEGREE OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF INTEREST GROUPS AND THEIR PERCEIVED INFLUENCE LEVEL OVER PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

The data collected on the structure of the interest groups included in the study and their respective level of perceived influence over public policy making in the field of education were investigated to see if there was any relationship between these two variables. It was intended to see if the degree of institutionalization of interest groups was related to the amount of perceived influence that the groups possessed. Groups were placed in rank order on these two variables and the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient calculated to be 0.315. This was not high enough to indicate any significant relationship so it was therefore concluded that this study had not shown any significant relationship between the degree of institutionalization of an interest group and the perceived influence of that group over educational policy making.

Results are shown in Table 46. Examples of the relative rank order positions include the university faculty of education, which had a high level of institutionalization and a low perceived influence, and the parent/community group which showed the reverse relationship.

TABLE 46

COMPARISON OF GROUP RANKINGS BASED ON DEGREE OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION AND PERCEIVED INFLUENCE ON PUBLIC POLICY MAKING

| Interest Group | Ranking on Institutionalization | Ranking on Influence |
|---|---|---|
| Alberta Teachers' Association | 1 | 1 |
| University Faculty of Education | 3 | 6 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | 4 | 3.5 |
| Alberta School Trustees' Association | 2 | 3.5 |
| Private Schools for the Exceptional | 6 | 5 |
| Parent/community groups | 5 | 2 |

rho = 0.32

## SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results obtained from the use of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children have been detailed. Part II of the schedule provided data on the attitudes of members of a number of educational interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children. It was found that university faculty of education professors and school superintendents were most in favor of placing exceptional children into regular classes, while special education teacher-members of the Alberta Teachers' Association and teachers in private schools for the exceptional were least in favor of this action. Despite this, no group indicated that severely exceptional children should be placed in regular classes or schools.

Part III of the schedule provided information about the level of knowledge shown by respondents on selected concepts in the area of special education. There were 20 items to be answered, the highest scores being obtained by school superintendents and university faculty of education professors. The lowest mean score was obtained by teachers in regular classrooms. The relationship between scores obtained on Part II and those obtained on Part III of the schedule were analysed using the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient, and a figure of rho = 0.54 was obtained. This suggested a positive correlation between school placement attitude and the level of knowledge of special education concepts.

Part IV of the schedule gave data on the perceived influence of a number of interest groups. Results were obtained first for the general area of educational policy making and second for the more specific area of the school placement of exceptional children. The provincial Department of Education was seen as the most influential group over government policy making in both areas, followed by the Alberta Teachers' Association. Influence was seen to be issue-specific in that significant changes were noted between the two areas.

No relationship was discovered between the amount of knowledge of special education shown by group members and the perceived influence of that group over specific policy making, nor between the degree of institutionalization of a group and its perceived influence over policy making generally.

# CHAPTER 7

# THE ANALYSIS OF GROUP ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE SCHOOL PLACEMENT OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## INTRODUCTION

This study examined the attitudes of members of selected interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children so that any implications these might hold for public policy making in the province of Alberta could be considered. In this chapter, the results obtained by members of each group on Part II of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children are analysed and an outline of their attitudes is developed. A number of general observations are then developed from this outline.

## ANALYSIS OF RESPONSES

### 1) The Alberta Teachers' Association (A.T.A.)

The attitudes of members of the Alberta Teachers' Association were obtained for two separate subgroups, special education teachers and teachers of regular classes. These are discussed separately.

#### a) Special Education Teachers

The sample for this group was composed of 69 special education teachers. The attitude of the sample, taken collectively, towards the school placement of exceptional children, as indicated by results obtained on Part II of the School Placement Schedule, was less in favor of integration than most of the other groups. This was evidenced by the group mean score which, at 3.56, was the second highest of all participating groups.

However, to allow for the diversity of types of exceptional children described in the schedule, each item was analysed individually. The mean scores obtained in each case are discussed here using the same placement types as were outlined in the previous chapter. Briefly, these were that mean scores below 2.50 on Part II of the schedule were considered to represent integrated placements of types A or C; scores between 2.50 and 3.49 were considered to represent semi-integrated placements (type D); scores between 3.50 and 4.49 were considered to represent placements in full-time special classes in regular schools (type E); scores between 4.50 and 5.49 were considered to represent placement in campus-type segregated special schools (type F); and those above 5.50 were considered to represent placements in segregated special schools on separate sites (type G). A full explanation of these placement types is given on Page 174 of this study.

As a group, special education teachers placed only two types of exceptional children, the epileptic child described in item 14 of the schedule, and the mildly physically handicapped child decribed in item 20, in regular classes (placement types A or C). All other groups except one placed significantly more exceptional children in these placement types.

Special education teachers placed the largest number of exceptional children in special classes from where they were integrated with non-exceptional children for up to half of each day (placement type D). In this category were placed the gifted (Item 1 of the schedule), the educable mentally retarded (item 4), the hearing impaired (item 6), the speech defective (item 7), the severely learning disabled (item 8), children with heart abnormalities (item 10), the visually impaired (item 15), the educable mentally retarded (item 16), the learning disabled (item 18), and the gifted/artistic (item 19). These represented a total of 10 children out of the 20 included in the schedule, or 50 per cent.

Full-time special class placement in regular schools (placement type E) was recommended for the learning disabled/hyperactive child (item 11 on the schedule) and the emotionally disturbed child (item 12). Both of these examples represented behavior or management problems in the classroom.

Placement in a campus-type segregated special school was recommended for children who were severely physically handicapped (item 3), socially maladjusted (item 5), deaf (item 9), and blind (item 13). Trainable mentally retarded children (item 2 on the schedule) and those who were multiply handicapped (item 17) were recommended for placement in a segregated special school (placement type G).

In summary, the special education teachers included in this study were not keen to place exceptional children in regular classes other than for short periods of time. They preferred to place even mildly exceptional children in special classes for most of their schooling, except for the epileptic and mildly physically handicapped children mentioned earlier. Children with behavior problems were isolated in special classes or schools, while there seemed little evidence of any movement towards the integration of severely exceptional children.

### b) Regular Classroom Teachers

The 63 regular classroom teachers included in the study gained a mean overall score of 3.48 on Part II of the School Placement Schedule. Although this was not significantly different from the score obtained by special education teachers, a number of differences were found between these two groups concerning the placement of particular types of exceptional children. The score of 3.48 was statistically significant only for the difference between regular classroom teachers and university faculty of education professors ($p = 0.01$).

Many more types of exceptional children were placed in the integrated categories (placement types A or C) than was suggested by the group of special education teachers. Children so placed were the gifted (as described in item 1 of the schedule), the educable mentally retarded (items 4 and 16), the severely learning disabled (item 8), the epileptic (item 14), the learning disabled (item 18), and the gifted/artistic (item 19), a total of seven out of the 20 children included in the study. The implication was that regular classroom teachers were willing to accept exceptional children of the types named into regular classes, especially if they could get part-time assistance from special education teachers or consultants.

A correspondingly smaller number of children were placed in the part-time special class category, placement type D. These included the hearing impaired (item 6), the speech defective (item 7), children with heart abnormalities (item 10), the learning disabled/hyperactive child (item 11), the visually impaired (item 15), and the mildly physically handicapped (item 20).

None of the children was placed in the full-time special class category, placement type E. Regular classroom teachers in the study preferred placements in either part-time special education classes in regular schools or in segregated special schools.

Children recommended for placement in campus-type special schools, placement type F, were the severely physically handicapped (as described in item 3 of the schedule), the socially maladjusted (item 5), the deaf (item 9), the emotionally disturbed (item 12), the blind (item 13), and the multiply handicapped (item 17). The trainable mentally retarded child described in item 2 was placed in a segregated special school (placement type G).

Thus, there were some important differences between the responses of these two subgroups of the Alberta Teachers' Association. In particular, special education teachers indicated that it was their responsibility to provide for the needs of most groups of mildly exceptional children, while regular classroom teachers indicated that many exceptional children would be better served in a regular class. It is difficult, therefore, to accept that a single policy of either integration or semi-integration could represent the attitudes of teachers generally as members of the A.T.A.

### 2) The Alberta School Trustees' Association (A.S.T.A.)

The sample of school trustees included in the study was obtained from the chairpersons of locally elected school boards within the province of Alberta. The number of respondents was low, with only 23, or 51 per cent, usable returns being received.

The attitudes of members of the A.S.T.A., as indicated by the results obtained on Part II of the School Placement Schedule, were not as much in favor of integrating exceptional children into regular classes as many of the other groups. The total mean score for trustees on the 20 items in this part of the schedule was 3.50, the third highest of the groups.

School trustees placed only five children in an integrated situation (placement types A or C). These were the hearing impaired (as described in item 6 of the schedule), the severely learning disabled (item 8), the epileptic (item 14), the gifted/artistic (item 19), and the mildly physically handicapped (item 20).

Seven children were allocated to a semi-integrated placement (placement type D). These were the gifted (as described in item 1 of the schedule), the educable mentally retarded (items 4 and 16), the speech defective (item 7), children with heart abnormalities (item 10), the visually impaired (item 15), and the learning disabled (item 18).

The school trustee group was one of two groups--the parent/community group was the other--which placed the gifted child described in item 1 in a semi-integrated setting (placement type D), while a similar child described in item 19 was placed in a regular class for most of the day (placement type C). This may have occurred because item 1 described a child who was disruptive in the classroom while item 19 emphasized the creative and artistic nature of that child.

Only two children were placed by school trustees in a full-time special class within a regular school (placement type E). These were the learning disabled/hyperactive child described in item 11 and the emotionally disturbed child described in item 12. Mean scores for most of the remaining items suggested placement in a campus-type segregated special school (placement type F). Children so placed were the trainable mentally retarded (item 2 on the sechedule), the severely physically handicapped (item 3), the socially maladjusted (item 5), the deaf (item 9), and the blind (item 13). The multiply handicapped child described in item 17 received the highest mean score of all items in the schedule, 5.55, this score representing placement in a segregated special school on its own site (placement type G).

Members of the A.S.T.A took a median course in placing exceptional children in school situations. Their responses reflected present practices quite closely as was evidenced by the suggested integration of learning disabled and hearing impaired children but not the educable mentally retarded.

### 3) The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (C.A.S.S.)

Thirty seven superintendents of schools throughout Alberta responded to the questionnaire and were included in the study. The mean score for the total of items in Part II of the School Placement Schedule was 3.06, the second lowest of all participating groups. This score was significantly different only to those obtained by regular classroom teachers ($p = 0.03$) and teachers in private schools for the exceptional ($p = 0.02$). When the mean score for each item was analysed, placements recommended by superintendents of schools were found to be very similar to those suggested by university faculty of education professors, as placements of types A and C (mean scores below 2.50), and type D (mean scores 2.50 - 3.49) were identical for both groups. Some differences did however occur in other placement categories.

Superintendents of schools recommended integration (placement types A or C) for gifted children (as described in items 1 and 19 of the schedule), educable mentally retarded children (items 4 and 16), learning disabled or severely learning disabled children (items 18 and 8), children with heart abnormalities (item 10), epileptic children (item 14), visually impaired children (item 15), and mildly physically handicapped children (item 20).

Speech defective children (described in item 7 of the schedule), and learning disabled/hyperactive children (item 11) were placed in a semi-integrated part-time special class situation (placement type D), while emotionally disturbed children (item 12) were placed in a full-time special class within a regular school (placement type E). All of the remaining children were placed in a campus-type segregated special school (placement type F). These were the trainable mentally retarded (item 2), the severely physically handicapped (item 3), the socially maladjusted (item 5), the deaf (item 9), the blind (item 13), and the multiply handicapped (item 17).

While superintendents indicated it to be appropriate to place the emotionally disturbed child described in item 12 in a regular school, they did not do so for the socially maladjusted child described in item 5. Mean scores for these two items varied from 4.81 for item 5 to 4.46 for item 12, while the total-group mean scores for these two items varied only from 4.51 to 4.37. Possibly the large difference between the two scores was due to the fact that in item 5 the relationship between socially unacceptable behavior and community sanctions was emphasized, while in item 12 the effect upon the individual himself was made obvious. Superintendents of schools may be very aware of community standards and the need to uphold them. Regular classroom teachers and school trustees made similar placements for these two items, while teachers of exceptional children in private schools reversed the order for them. Other groups placed both children in the same category.

Superintendents of schools supported the integration of a wide range of exceptional children into regular classes, particularly those with mild exceptionalities or who were not disruptive in the classroom or community. No types of children were recommended for placement in segregated special schools.

4) The University Faculty of Education

The sample of university faculty of education professors included in the study comprised thirty six professors in the three departments of Educational Administration, Education Psychology, and Elementary Education at a recognized Alberta university. The overall mean score obtained by this group on Part II of the School Placement Schedule was 2.90, the lowest of all participating groups. This score was significantly different to mean scores of regular classroom teachers ($p = 0.01$), special education teachers ($p = 0.01$), school trustees ($p = 0.09$), and teachers of exceptional children in private schools ($p = 0.00$).

Of the twenty items in the schedule, eleven received mean scores below 2.50 and the children described in these were thus recommended for placement in an integrated setting (placement types A or C). They were the gifted (as described in items 1 and 19 of the schedule), the educable mentally retarded (items 4 and 16), the hearing impaired (item 6), the severely learning disabled (item 8), those with heart abnormalities (item 10), the epileptic (item 14), the visually impaired (item 15), the learning disabled (item 18), and the mildly physically handicapped (item 20).

Only two children were recommended for placement in part-time special classes (placement type D). These were the speech defective (item 7) and the learning disabled/hyperactive children (item 11). Three others, the socially maladjusted (item 5), the emotionally disturbed (item 12), and the blind (item 13), were recommended for placement in a full-time special class within a regular school (placement type E). Trainable mentally retarded (item 2), severely physically handicapped (item 3), deaf (item 9), and multiply handicapped children (item 17), were placed in a campus-type segregated special school (placement type F).

University professors consistently favored integrated placements for mildly exceptional children and showed attitudes suggesting that all exceptional children should be integrated as much as possible. Despite this, they too were not yet prepared to suggest that all exceptional children could be accommodated within the regular class setting.

### 5) The Parent/Community Group

The members of this group were either parents of children with a particular type of exceptionality or community members who, because of a particular interest in this field, belonged to the organization representing children with a specific form of exceptionality. There were 29 usable replies included in the study.

The overall mean score for this group on Part II of the School Placement Schedule was 3.36, almost identical to the mean score for the total sample of all groups of 3.35. It was not significantly different to the score of any other group.

Integrated school placements of types A or C were suggested for 6 children out of the 20 included in this part of the schedule. These were the educable mentally retarded (as described in item 4 of the schedule), the hearing impaired (item 6), epileptic children (item 14), the learning disabled (item 18), the gifted/artistic (item 19), and the mildly physically handicapped (item 20).

Seven children were placed in semi-integrated school placements of type D. These were the gifted (item 1 of the schedule), the speech defective (item 7), the severely learning disabled (item 8), those with heart abnormalities (item 10), the learning disabled/hyperactive (item 11), the visually impaired (item 15), and the educable mentally retarded (item 16). Only two children, the socially maladjusted (item 5) and the emotionally disturbed (item 12), were placed in a full-time special class within a regular school (placement type E), while the remaining five types of exceptional children were all placed in campus-type segregated special schools (placement type F). These were the trainable mentally retarded (item 2), the severely physically handicapped (item 3), the deaf (Item 9), the blind (item 13), and the multiply handicapped (item 17).

The general attitude of members of this group was that children with minor exceptionalities could be provided for within the regular class and all those except the severely exceptional or children showing highly disruptive behavior could be placed in either integrated or semi-integrated classroom placements.

### 6) Private Schools for the Exceptional

Difficulties were experienced in obtaining a large sample from this group, and only 24 usable returns were obtained. The group mean score on all twenty items in Part II of the School Placement Schedule was 3.67. This was the highest of any group, and was significantly different to scores obtained by university faculty of education professors ($p = 0.00$), and superintendents of schools ($p = 0.02$).

Only one type of exceptional child, the epileptic described in item 14, was recommended for integration into regular classes (placement types A or C). This was the least of any group in the study. However, 50 per cent of the children described in the 20 items were placed in the semi-integrated type D placement. These included the gifted (as described in items 1 and 19 of the schedule), the educable mentally retarded (items 4 and 16), the hearing impaired (item 6), the learning disabled and severely learning disabled (items 8 and 18), children with heart abnormalities (item 10), the visually impaired (item 15), and the mildly physically handicapped (item 20).

Three types of exceptional children, the socially maladjusted (item 5), the speech defective (item 7), and the learning disabled/ hyperactive (item 11), were placed in full-time special classes within regular schools (placement type E). Teachers in private schools for the exceptional were the only respondents to include the speech defective child described in item 7 in this category, possibly because of the experience members of this group may have had with children suffering from serious communications problems. It is possible that these teachers associated speech disorders with more severe forms of exceptionality, therefore placing children with such problems in a more segregated setting than did members of other responding groups.

Consistent with the responses of most of the other groups, teachers in private schools for exceptional children placed severely exceptional children in campus-type segregated special schools (placement type F). Children so placed were the trainable mentally retarded (item 2 in the schedule), the severely physically handicapped (item 3), the deaf (item 9), the emotionally disturbed (item 12), the blind (item 13), and the multiply handicapped (item 17). Interestingly, the mean scores for each of these items except item 12 was below the mean for respondents in the total group. Possibly, this indicated that teachers in private schools for exceptional children, while not ready to accept integration for mildly exceptional children, were not in favor of placing severely exceptional children in fully segregated special educational facilities. The emphasis upon campus-type segregated special school placements for severely exceptional children probably also indicated that these teachers believed that their schools should be part of the public school systems.

An outline of the placement suggested for each of the exceptional children described in the schedule, as discussed, is given in Table 47.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS AND SUMMARY

A number of general observations can be made from the preceding analysis. These are discussed below.

1. A distinction was made generally between four types of exceptional children and the appropriate school placement. These were: (a) children with minor exceptionalities that could be provided for in the regular class setting; (b) children with minor exceptionalities that would benefit from some integration into regular classrooms but who basically required a special class setting; (c) children with forms of exceptionality that produced socially disturbing or disruptive behavior; and (d) children with exceptionalities severe enough to require total segregation from the regular classroom.

2. Main areas of disagreement between group responses centred around the distribution of responses between categories (a) and (b) above. For example, teachers in private schools for exceptional children placed only one type of child in category (a) and ten children in category (b), and special education teachers in public school systems placed two children in category (a) and ten children in category (b). On the other hand, university professors and superintendents of schools placed eleven children in category (a) and only two in category (b).

3. Generally, behavior that was disruptive to other children or socially disturbing was considered to require isolation into special classes or schools. No group, for example, placed the socially maladjusted child described in item 5 or the emotionally disturbed child described in item 12 in a school setting less segregated than the full-time special

## TABLE 47

### SCHOOL PLACEMENT OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AS INDICATED BY ATTITUDES OF INTEREST GROUP MEMBERS ON PART II OF THE SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE

| School Placement Type | Alberta Teachers' Special Education Teachers | Association Regular Classroom Teachers | Alberta School Trustees' Association | Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | University Faculty of Education | Parent / Community Group | Private Schools for Exceptional Children |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Integrated into Regular class, with or without special supplementary assistance | Epileptic<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Gifted<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Learning disabled<br>Epileptic | Hearing Impaired<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Epileptic<br>Gifted (19)<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Gifted<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Hearing impaired<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Heart abnormality<br>Epileptic<br>Visually impaired<br>Learning disabled<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Gifted<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Hearing impaired<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Heart Abnormality<br>Epileptic<br>Visually impaired<br>Learning disabled<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Educable mentally retarded (4)<br>Hearing impaired<br>Epileptic<br>Learning disabled<br>Gifted (19)<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Epileptic |
| Placed in special class, integrated into regular classes for up to half-days (semi integrated) | Gifted<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Hearing impaired<br>Speech defective<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Heart abnormality<br>Visually impaired<br>Learning Disabled | Hearing impaired<br>Speech defective<br>Heart abnormality<br>Learning disabled/hyperactive<br>Visually impaired<br>Mildly physically handicapped | Gifted (1)<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Speech defective<br>Heart abnormality<br>Visually impaired<br>Learning disabled | Speech defective<br>Learning disabled/hyperactive | Speech defective<br>Learning disabled/hyperactive | Gifted (1)<br>Speech defective<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Heart abnormality<br>Learning disabled/hyperactive<br>Visually impaired<br>Educable mentally retarded (16) | Gifted<br>Educable mentally retarded<br>Hearing impaired<br>Severely learning disabled<br>Heart abnormality<br>Visually impaired<br>Mildly physically handicapped<br>Learning Disabled |
| Full-time special class in regular school | Learning disabled/hyperactive<br>Emotionally disturbed | - | Learning disabled /hyperactive<br>Emotionally disturbed | Emotionally disturbed | Socially maladjusted<br>Emotionally disturbed<br>Blind | Socially maladjusted<br>Emotionally disturbed | Socially maladjusted<br>Speech defective<br>Learning disabled/hyperactive |
| Campus-type special school | Severely physically handicapped<br>Socially maladjusted<br>Deaf<br>Blind | Severely physically handicapped<br>Socially maladjusted<br>Deaf<br>Emotionally disturbed<br>Blind<br>Multiply handicapped | Severely physically handicapped<br>Trainable mentally retarded<br>Socially maladjusted<br>Deaf<br>Blind | Severely physically handicapped<br>Trainable mentally retarded<br>Socially maladjusted<br>Deaf<br>Multiply handicapped<br>Blind | Severely physically handicapped<br>Trainable mentally retarded<br>Deaf<br>Multiply handicapped | Severely physically handicapped<br>Trainable mentally retarded<br>Deaf<br>Blind<br>Multiply handicapped | Severely physically handicapped<br>Trainable mentally retarded<br>Deaf<br>Emotionally disturbed<br>Blind<br>Multiply handicapped |
| Special School in Separate Location | Trainable mentally retarded<br>Multiply handicapped | Trainable mentally retarded | Multiply handicapped | - | - | - | - |

special class in a regular school. The learning disabled/hyperactive child described in item 11 was similarly placed by three of the groups.

4. Groups of exceptional children that have traditionally been placed in special schools, such as the blind, deaf, trainable mentally retarded and the multiply handicapped, continued to be placed in these schools. The form of placement recommended was usually, however, the campus-type special school rather than the special school on its own site. Such a placement would allow for some mixing of exceptional and non-exceptional children on an incidental basis.

5. Teachers most likely to have had the greatest amount of special education classroom experience, those teaching special education classes in public schools and in private schools for exceptional children, were most opposed to integrating exceptional children into regular classes as general policy, preferring instead the semi-integrated classroom setting. Possible reasons for this have been advanced earlier in this chapter.

The findings of this chapter can be summarized briefly by stating that a majority of members of all groups in the study favored at least semi-integration for children with mild exceptionalities. They preferred the continuation of special schools for severely exceptional children but usually suggested that these should be on the same campus as regular schools rather than in separate locations. The implications of these findings for policy making are discussed in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER 8

# SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

## RESTATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

For a considerable period of time, it was regarded as a desirable practice to isolate children with special educational needs into special classes and schools. This separated exceptional children from their peers, but provided a very visible and in most ways an acceptable method of dealing with the problems they faced. The last decade has, however, produced a significant change in attitudes regarding how such children ought to be educated. This change has largely been the result of a reassessment of the rights of minority groups of all kinds in modern society, and has been particularly strong in the United States of America.

Public Law 94-142, passed by the United States Federal Government in 1975, was designed to protect the right of the exceptional child--as a child--to be part of the regular educational system wherever this was possible. If school systems were to receive federal grants--and these were quite substantial--they were required to place exceptional children in the least restrictive environment that was appropriate to their needs. The Canadian provinces, apart from Saskatchewan and Nova Scotia, do not have similar mandatory legislation, although a recent court ruling indicates that Alberta is probably moving in this direction at the present time. Legislation of the type mentioned is not yet operative in most Canadian provinces.

According to this study, policy making in educational matters occurs largely at the provincial government level in Canada, with provincial governments acting upon demands made by various interest groups in the political system. In order to determine what demands might be placed upon the provincial government on the issue of the school placement of exceptional children, a number of interest groups were identified and investigated.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the attitudes of members of major educational interest groups towards the school placement of exceptional children in the province of Alberta. The level of knowledge shown by group members of selected concepts in special education and the perceived influence of a number of interest groups over public policy making were also investigated. In addition, information about the organizational structure and level of institutionalization of each of the groups was obtained. Data were collected by means of a questionnaire distributed to a sample of members of the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents, a university faculty of education, a parent/community group, and teachers in private schools for exceptional children.

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

### Analysis of Groups

Subproblem 1 of the study was concerned with the determination of the groups to be included in the study and the analysis of each of these groups. This analysis was based upon a typology of interest groups developed by Pross (1975:9-18) in which he categorized interest groups into four main types along a continuum: issue-oriented, fledgling, mature, and institutionalized groups. These groups are described on Pages 34-35 and in Figure 2 on Page 36 of this study. The interest groups Pross described as issue-oriented possess little organizational continuity and concentrate on short-term specific goals; those he described as institutionalized have a stable membership, multiple goals, and extensive access to human and financial resources. The main findings of this analysis are restated below.

The Alberta Teachers' Association is the largest and most highly developed group in the study. It has a large and stable membership, a highly developed support and administrative staff, and a well-defined policy statement. Its tactics in dealing with the government include confrontation where necessary, but discussions with the government and involvement in government committees are the predominant means of gaining satisfaction of demands.

The Alberta School Trustees' Association is also a highly developed organization, though considerably smaller in membership than the Alberta Teachers' Association. It has a permanent professional and administrative staff and a well-defined, diverse policy statement. Although confrontations do occur with the government over policy demands, the Alberta School Trustees' Association also uses discussions with the government and representation on government committees to achieve many of its objectives.

The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents is a much smaller group with a very limited professional staff. Despite this, it is able to apply considerable influence on the government because of its importance as a group of educational leaders. This is done through meetings with the Minister and the submission of briefs and position papers. The University Faculty of Education has no formal policy statement concerning special education in schools, and its access to government is frequently limited to the involvement of faculty members in committees of inquiry set up by the government.

The Parent/Community group is a province-wide association of parents of learning disabled children and of interested community members. Its organizational structure is small and it depends heavily upon voluntary staffing. Policies are clearly defined but provide for the needs of one group of exceptional children only. Because of its narrow focus, the group is able to exert considerable influence in that specific area, mainly through direct access to members of the Cabinet. Private schools for exceptional children are generally administered by a principal and executive staff in accordance with policies established by the sponsoring association. The schools as such do not normally become involved politically, leaving this to their associations.

The groups were classified into the four types suggested by Pross. The Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association were considered to be at approximately the same position on the continuum and were placed in the _institutionalized_ group classification. Both groups met most of the criteria established by Pross for this type of group, particularly in the areas of organizational continuity, structure, policy development, and access to human and financial resources.

The University Faculty of Education was difficult to classify because it is part of an institution rather than a group in its own right. It lacked definite policy objectives in the area under study, but possessed organizational stability and cohesion. It was classified as a _mature_ group. The Conference of Alberta School Superintendents was also classified as a _mature_ organization, but at a lower level of development than the university faculty, for it possessed many of the characteristics of fledgling interest groups also. What it lacked in organizational size and professional staff, however, was compensated for by other variables such as the extent of its policies and its access to government.

The Parent/Community group was a clear example of an interest group that began as an issue-oriented group but moved quickly to assume many of the qualities of a fledgling organization. Policies were still narrow in their scope, however. Private schools for exceptional children, as was stated earlier, were difficult to classify because, although they were seen as possessing political influence in specific areas only, they also possessed a formal organizational structure. This structure was, however, for an educational purpose rather than a political one; therefore, private schools were classified as fledgling organizations.

## Attitudes Towards School Placement

Subproblem 2 of the study was concerned with an investigation into the attitudes of individual group members towards certain forms of school placement for exceptional children. Specifically, the overall attitudes expressed by members of each interest group towards the school placement of exceptional children, the attitudes of group members towards the school placement of specific types of exceptional children, and the differences that occurred between members of groups concerning suggested placements, were investigated.

The overall conclusion reached was that members of the University Faculty of Education and the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents were most in favor of integrating exceptional children into regular classes while special education teachers and those teachers in private schools for exceptional children were least inclined to do so.

All groups in the study distinguished between four general categories of exceptional children. These were: (i) children who were mildly exceptional and who should be integrated into regular classes from where they would receive support services from special education teachers; (ii) children with mild exceptionalities which required placement in a special class part-time, also being integrated with regular classes for part of each school day; (iii) children with exceptionalities that were socially disturbing or disruptive in the classroom; and (iv) children with exceptionalities severe enough to need special placement, usually in a campus-type segregated special school.

Considerable disagreement was noted concerning the types of exceptional children to be included in the first two categories, with the number of children placed in category (i) varying from one to eleven out of a total of twenty. Teachers in private schools for exceptional children placed only the epileptic child in category (i), while university faculty of education professors and school superintendents placed almost all of the mildly exceptional children in this category.

A higher level of agreement was noted for the types of children included in categories (iii) and (iv). In most cases, children described as socially maladjusted, emotionally disturbed, and learning disabled/hyperactive, were placed in full-time special classes in regular schools. The trainable mentally retarded, the severely physically handicapped, the deaf, the blind, and the multiply handicapped, were all recommended for segregated forms of school placement.

## Knowledge of Special Education

Subproblem 3 of the study concerned the level of knowledge shown by group members of concepts in special education and the relationship between this and their attitudes towards school placements. Results indicated that differences between groups on the basis of the level of knowledge shown on Part III of the School Placement Schedule were statistically significant (Table 37, Page 212). School superintendents showed the highest level of knowledge followed by university faculty of education professors. Teachers in private schools for exceptional children and regular classroom teachers gained the lowest scores on this variable.

A Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient of 0.54 was obtained for the relationship between Parts II and III of the School Placement Schedule. This indicated that there was a significant relationship between the amount of knowledge possessed by members of each group and their attitudes towards school placement. This relationship was such that the more knowledge of special education members of a group showed, the more likely that group was to favor integrating exceptional children. This finding is consistent with research quoted in Chapter 2 concerning the effects of education programs on teachers and their willingness to accept exceptional children in their regular classes (See Pages 60-61 for details of this research). It is possible that, if integration is to be successful, the teachers involved need to be well-informed in the area of special education.

## Influence Over Policy Making

Subproblem 4 was concerned with the influence that each of the groups was perceived to possess over public policy making. The perceived level of influence of each group was investigated for the general field of educational policy making as well as for the specific issue under investigation in this study. The relationships between the knowledge of special education shown by group members and that group's perceived influence level over the school placement of exceptional children, and between the degree of institutionalization of a group and its perceived influence level over educational policy making in general, were also examined.

Interest groups were perceived to differ considerably in influence level according to the issue under review. This finding was in agreement with research quoted on Pages 44-45 of this study. In the general area of educational policy making, the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association, both highly developed and institutionalized groups, were found to be the most influential of the groups; the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents was next in order. Least influential were parent groups, community groups, and private schools (Table 41, Page 220).

However, the perceived influence level of the groups differed when the focus was placed on the specific issue of school placement of exceptional children. Parents of exceptional children were seen as forming the most influential group, although the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association also ranked favorably. Private schools for exceptional children were also ranked significantly higher in their influence level. The conclusion to be drawn is that influence is indeed perceived to be issue-specific (Table 43, Page 224).

The provincial Department of Education was regarded as having the greatest amount of influence over educational policy making in Alberta, making it an important focus for interest group pressure.

No relationship was apparent between the amount of knowledge shown by members of interest groups and the groups' perceived influence level in the area of special education. Groups which scored highly on

Part III of the School Placement Schedule, which indicated a high knowledge of concepts in special education, were not perceived as having a comparable high level of influence over policy making (Table 45, Page 228). Nor was the degree of institutionalization of the interest groups found to be significantly related to the perceived level of influence on policy making generally (Table 46, Page 229).

## IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS FOR PUBLIC POLICY MAKING IN ALBERTA

In this study, emphasis has been placed upon the policy making function of the provincial government, at the same time accepting that policy implementation is largely the prerogative of local school jurisdictions. What this has often meant in practice is that while the provincial government determines the priorities and methods of financing particular aspects of education in Alberta, local school jurisdictions decide whether or not to actually implement particular programs.

For example, provincial policy provides for the establishment of special education teaching positions and defines the conditions under which financial assistance is available to meet the costs involved. School boards then decide whether to apply for such grants; they are not *required* to establish such positions. Hence, there is no certainty that policies will be implemented even after they have been adopted by the government. The government can insert financial provisions into any new policy to make its implementation very attractive to the individual school jurisdictions, but traditionally this is as far as it has been prepared to go.

The right of local school jurisdictions to make such decisions is limited by the requirements of *The School Act* (1970), *The Department of Education Act* (1970), other relevant Acts, and Court decisions such as the one outlined on Page 87 of this study.

## Policies of Interest Groups in the Area of Special Education

The first step in the analysis of policy making as it applied to the school placement of exceptional children consisted of determining the interest groups to be included in the study. Then, through a study of their policy statements and information obtained from the Organization/Agency Information Schedule, it was determined whether these groups had clearly established policies dealing specifically with the school placement of exceptional children. The analysis of these policies was carried out in Chapter 5, and revealed that in almost every case there was no clear policy in either of the two areas mentioned above. A brief summary of the analysis is given below.

The Alberta Teachers' Association included in its policy statement proposals that visually impaired and blind children should be integrated as much as possible into regular classes and that the Department of Education should provide sufficient funds for school boards to develop programs for students with special needs. However, little reference was made to special education beyond these statements.

The Alberta School Trustees' Association has developed a more comprehensive statement of policy in this field, including the proposal that provincial funds be provided to allow the inclusion of programs for trainable and educable mentally retarded children and physically handicapped children in the publicly-supported school systems. As pointed out in Chapter 3, this policy is presently being implemented on a gradual basis and it would appear that many private schools of this type will have been absorbed by the public school systems within the next several years.

The policy statement of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents illustrated a situation where the official policy statement did not represent the views of the members as expressed by the sample used in this study. The policy statement made no mention of special education, but contained a more general statement to the effect that education should be available only to those who can profit from it. Yet, the interest of school superintendents in special education and the school placement of exceptional children is evidenced by the special study initiated by the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents in 1977 to investigate the integration of special education students into regular school programs.

The University Faculty of Education has no officially stated policy on the school placement of exceptional children or on special education generally. Its inclusion in this study is justified because on numerous occasions prior to formulating policy, the government seeks the advice of recognized experts such as university faculty members. For this reason, it is useful to know the attitudes of a sample of individual members of this group.

Parents and community groups in the field of special education frequently represent a powerful and vocal minority within the community. They probably have, as suggested on Page 162, considerable access to government policy makers. Analysis of the policy statement of the parent/community group included in the study indicated that this group was representative of one particular type of exceptionality only and that its interest was confined to children of that type. Policies did not embrace the total group of all exceptional children in the community.

Many former private schools for exceptional children have now become part of the public school sector in Alberta. Hence, it might be expected that those remaining, and particularly the large, well-established ones, would be concerned with justifying their existence. The policies of the schools examined gave some indication of an emphasis on the fact that such schools serve an identifiable and important need in the overall education system. In support of this, the program emphasis in one of the schools studied was upon the high quality of this program and the fact that it could be offered to the children only because it was a specialist school operating with its own identity and serving only a particular group of exceptional children.

Private school officials interviewed were committed to the continuation of such schools as a vital part of a total special education program providing for the needs of all children and their parents. Because private schools operated outside of the public school systems, it was considered that they could provide for exceptional children regardless of where the children lived as long as costs were met from other sources.

In summary, then, it is difficult to gain a great deal of specific information about the policies of interest groups as they apply to special education from a study of their official, written policies, because references to special education are rare and usually imprecise. The sources of demand for government policy changes can therefore be considered next through a study of the attitudes of a representative sample of members of each group.

## Attitudes of Interest Group Members in the Area of Special Education and Their Implications for Policy Making

The attitudes of members of each interest group to the school placement of exceptional children were analysed in Chapter 7. It is now proposed to suggest demands for policy changes that could arise from the expression of these attitudes as policies by each group. It is important to note that although the attitudes expressed in this study may develop into formal demands of the groups concerned, there is no certainty that this will occur. The study of group policies showed that demands for changes in special education policy are not particularly vocal in Alberta at the present time, although the Court decision referred to on Page 87 may be an indication that this is already starting to change. Hence, it is necessary to project the analysis into the future and suggest what might happen rather than examine what did happen some time in the past.

In general, the policy demands suggested are ones that appear on the basis of results obtained to be acceptable to all or most of the groups. These would therefore be unlikely to arouse a great deal of opposition except possibly from certain special interest groups.

1. All groups indicated that a comprehensive program of special educational services should be provided within the publicly-supported schools systems. This was shown by the results of all groups on Part II of the School Placement Schedule.

The inclusion of all special educational services within the publicly-supported schools systems would be a relatively simple move for the major school jurisdictions because they already have extensive special educational facilities and the organization to support them. It would, however, pose a number of problems for the smaller jurisdictions which frequently lack the scope for the type of organization required. These problems would include determining the procedures through which the needs of a very small number of exceptional children could best be met, and the establishment of effective identification programs.

Policy makers would therefore be faced with the need to decide between at least two ways of meeting this demand. One would provide for the establishment of new publicly-supported school facilities for exceptional children, at the same time continuing to give children attending private schools the same level of financial support as at present. This would provide parents with a choice of alternative facilities, but would lead to the inevitable duplication of facilities and a need to increase available resources.

An alternative policy would be to reduce the support given by the government and local school jurisdictions to students at private schools for exceptional children, and to use the money saved to establish public or separate schools of a similar nature. This would affect the viability of the private schools and hasten present trends towards their incorporation into the public school systems.

With two publicly-supported school systems as there are in Alberta, a number of problems would arise if each school system was to provide its own special educational facilities. The duplication referred to above would also be a problem here, particularly between the smaller and more isolated rural systems catering to only a small number of children. The limited availability of specially trained teachers and the need for a high level of financial support would make some form of cooperation between school systems almost a necessity.

2. The study gave a clear indication that demands are not presently being made for the integration of children with severe exceptionalities into regular classes. All groups advocated that the trainable mentally retarded, the severely physically handicapped, the multiply handicapped, the deaf, and the blind, should be placed in segregated facilities and not integrated into regular classes (Table 14,

Page 172).

3. All groups indicated that, in general, the most suitable form of school placement for severely exceptional children was in campus-type segregated special schools, rather than in special schools built on separate sites to regular schools. Results shown in Table 14 on Page 172 indicated that the overall group recommended campus-type special school placements for trainable mentally retarded, severely physically handicapped, socially maladjusted, deaf, blind, and multiply handicapped children.

An examination of individual group scores showed some minor variations to this placement. Trainable mentally retarded children were recommended for placement in a segregated special school on its own site by special education teachers and regular classroom teachers; socially maladjusted children were placed in full-time special classes in regular schools by university faculty of education professors and members of the parent/community group; emotionally disturbed children were placed in campus-type special schools by regular classroom teachers and teachers in private schools for exceptional children; blind children were placed by university faculty of education professors in full-time special classes in regular schools; and multiply handicapped children were placed in segregated special schools by special education teachers and school trustees (Table 14, Page 172).

Despite these exceptions, the majority of placements were in campus-type segregated special schools. As stated in Chapter 1, the campus-school concept involves the establishment of a segregated special school for exceptional children on the same site as a regular school. Each of the schools would be administered separately, but there would be some common facilities--gymasium, playing field, assembly hall--which would allow for interaction between children on an incidental basis.

The placement of a school for exceptional children on the same site or campus as a regular school would provide numerous benefits over the special school located separately. One benefit would be the incidental contact referred to above between exceptional and non-exceptional children, as opposed to the total isolation of a segregated special school. A second benefit would be that a campus school is more easily seen as part of the local school system. This may reduce the prejudice displayed towards exceptional children and the fear of special school placement often experienced by parents, children and teachers.

Economic factors are also important. Because some of the facilities would be shared between the two schools, the costs of development and maintenance would also be shared. Transport costs may be minimized through the provision of a common system of school buses except where special transport facilities were required. Some specialist teachers may be appointed on a shared basis so that a more effective program could be provided at both schools. Finally, medical assistance and other ancillary aides and staff may be more advantageously placed in the combined school setting.

4. While the provision of segregated school placements--of the campus-school type--for severely exceptional children was advocated by all groups, the segregation of mildly exceptional children was not. All groups suggested that semi-integrated or integrated school placements were the most suitable for these children. Children recommended for either of these two placements were the gifted, the educable mentally retarded, the hearing impaired, the speech defective, the severely learning disabled, the learning disabled/hyperactive, the epileptic,

the visually impaired, and the mildly physically handicapped. Children described as suffering from heart abnormalities were also included (Table 14, Page 172).

5. As pointed out in Chapter 3, a significant amount of the finance provided for special education in Alberta is allocated through Special Education Teaching Position grants. Under this system of grants, special education teaching positions are classified as either Type A or Type B positions according to the nature and severity of the handicap provided for. Type A positions are those dealing with severely exceptional children, while Type B positions are those dealing with children having only mild exceptionalities (These positions are defined more fully on Page 98). The financial contribution provided by the provincial government in 1977 for the highest Type A position was $14,700 for blind children; for Type B positions, the amount paid was $9,300 (Table I, Page 100).

The method of structuring these financial contributions has tended to influence local school boards towards the establishment of special classes as administrative units that are easily discerned, financed, and controlled. As a result, special classes have been used frequently to provide for many of the types of mildly exceptional children described in this study. Yet, attitudes discussed above have suggested that the most suitable means of providing for mildly exceptional children is through integrated and semi-integrated school placements. Because these two approaches are inconsistent, the government may have to reexamine the system under which special education teaching position grants are paid.

The use of a per-position grant places the emphasis upon the position; the use of a per-pupil grant may well place the emphasis upon the child. Consideration should therefore be given to the distribution of funds for children now covered by Type B positions on a per-pupil basis rather than a per-position basis. This would encourage the integration of mildly exceptional children into regular classes and lessen the emphasis implied by present policy upon segregated classes.

The level of financial contribution made by the provincial government to special education is a separate factor that is not considered here--only the method of providing funds is under review. Having regard to the overall level of financial support provided, a single contribution could be made to each school system based upon the number of mildly exceptional children identified according to established criteria within the school district.

The results of this study indicate that such a change is desirable only for mildly exceptional children. Type A grants could continue to be paid along present lines for severely exceptional children in campus-type segregated special schools.

6. All groups in the study indicated that gifted children should be included in special education programs, with four groups indicating that such children should be placed in a semi-integrated classroom setting. Yet, at present, there appears to be no allowance made for these children under the financial provisions of the Special Education Teaching Position grants. Results obtained in this study indicate that gifted children should be included with other mildly exceptional children in the Type B financial structure or any amendment of this that may be introduced.

7. The emphasis that the present funding arrangements places upon the segregation of exceptional children into special classes has already been mentioned and the recommendation made that changes in

financial policy should be introduced to encourage the integration of mildly exceptional children into regular classes for at least part of the school day. This may be achieved through an extension in the number of resource classes in regular schools. The resource class concept allows children in regular classes to be helped by a special education teacher for part of the school day, either individually or in small groups. Frequently in the past, children receiving help of this kind have been either of low average ability in need of individual assistance of a remedial kind, or learning disabled. Additional resource rooms could extend this service to other types of mildly exceptional children, thus allowing them to be placed in regular classes also.

An alternative method of providing the functions served by the resource room was suggested in the Alberta Special Education Study (1977). That report recommended a major shift in special education policy to allow funds to be used for the purpose of employing special education teachers as consultant-teachers where desired. This would permit them to work with regular class teachers in a consultant capacity, helping the regular class teachers with the special problems that the integration of mildly exceptional children would create in their classes. Such an arrangement would necessitate considerable adaptation on the part of both special education teachers and regular class teachers if it were to function effectively, and would therefore be difficult to implement in the short term. Nevertheless, the proposal would reduce the present emphasis upon segregated classes referred to earlier, and would serve as an alternative to the changes suggested in this study.

8. The full-time special class located within regular schools was not deemed appropriate by respondents in this study generally. An examination of the results obtained on Part II of the School Placement

Schedule showed that respondents generally suggested that children at present in these classes would be more appropriately placed in semi-integrated school settings or in campus-type special schools. The only common exceptions concerned children who were disruptive in the school situation (item 11 in the schedule) or who behaved in socially unacceptable ways (items 5 and 12 in the schedule).

## Implications of Findings for General Policy Making

A number of implications that the findings of the study have for policy making generally in the province of Alberta are discussed below.

1. When seeking the satisfaction of their demands through government policy making, the interest groups included in the study are reluctant to utilize the media as a major tactic. As discussed in Chapter 5, most groups indicated that their preferred form of approach was through regular--although often only annual--meetings with the relevant Minister. One group indicated that it preferred to approach the larger Cabinet group (see Page 162). In either case, the claims made in Chapter 2 (Page 47) that Canadian interest groups work through recognized channels was certainly borne out in this study; the evidence for this statement is given in Chapter 5.

Further, the interest groups included in the study appeared prepared to compromise on their demands when they were challenged by the government. They seemed willing to accept compromises and small advances rather than face the prospect of open conflict with the government.

2. The provincial government has a double source of control over educational policies implemented by local school jurisdictions in that, as well as possessing legislative policy making authority, the government controls the allocation of finance to the local school boards.

Thus, the government is able to induce local school jurisdictions to implement certain policies through the favorable allocation of special-purpose grants to areas designated as priorities; this is evidenced by the Learning Disabilities Fund described in Chapter 3 (Page 104). If the government accepts certain policies in response to the demands of interest groups, then school jurisdictions can probably be persuaded to implement them if special funds are made available.

3. The relative influence level of interest groups has implications for the government in determining the priority given to any demands placed upon it. As suggested by research quoted in Chapter 2 (Page 46), teacher professional organizations were found to occupy positions of considerable influence with regard to policy making in education. The Alberta Teachers' Association was seen as the most influential of all the interest groups included in the study and second only in influence to the provincial department of education. The Alberta School Trustees' Association was also perceived to be a highly influential group in the area of educational policy making. The influence of the university faculty of education was perceived to be significantly below these two associations as well as below that of the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents.

4. It was suggested in Chapter 2 that the influence of interest groups on any particular issue is at least partly dependent upon what that issue is. This was brought out quite clearly in the present study by the significant differences between the perceived influence level of groups on the first section of Part IV of the School Placement Schedule (Table 41, Page 220) and the second section (Table 43, Page 225). The first section dealt with the broad area of education while the second section was concerned with the school placement of exceptional children. When the issue was seen as a specific one in which certain groups were

directly involved, those groups were regarded as being very influential indeed; parent groups and private schools for exceptional children clearly illustrated this point.

Thus influence was not seen as being related solely to the size of the group; rather, the relationship between the issue and the interest group was found to be highly significant. This could mean that when making policy about a specific issue, the government would need to consider carefully the specific groups affected and consult these rather than the larger but more general-purpose groups.

5. The provincial department of education was perceived by all groups in the study to be the most influential organization in educational policy making in this province. Although this group was not included in the study for reasons stated in Chapter 4, its high influence level has important implications for interest group tactics. If a group wishes to place its demands before the government, and particularly if that group is unable to gain effective access to the Cabinet, it may attempt to influence senior members of the bureaucracy instead.

## Summary

A number of implications that the findings of this study have for public policy making in the area of special education in Alberta have been discussed. Organizational policies as outlined in Chapter 5 were summarized briefly. The attitudes of members of each group towards the school placement of exceptional children were then discussed to indicate their implications for policy making in this field. Generally accepted attitudes suggested that all special education should be included within the publicly-supported school systems, that campus-type special schools were most suitable for the needs of severely exceptional children, and that mildly exceptional children were best provided for in integrated or semi-integrated class settings. The financing of Type B Special Education Teaching Positions through a system of per-pupil grants was suggested.

The influence of the Alberta Teachers' Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, and most especially, the provincial Department of Education, have important implications for policy making in this province.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study concerned special education and related aspects of policy making. Further research into some aspects of these two areas is warranted.

### Special Education

Part II of the School Placement Schedule for Exceptional Children contained 20 items describing a variety of exceptional children. Research is needed to cover a narrower group of exceptionalities. For example, the findings suggested that there are four broad categories of exceptionality in relation to school placements. One or two of these could be investigated in more detail. Important differences were discerned between various types of mild exceptionality and the forms of school placement recommended by members of each group. The differences between categories (i) and (ii) mentioned above and the implications they have for the establishment of effective delivery systems for special education might be investigated.

The relationship between the knowledge of special education possessed by a respondent and his attitude to the school placement of exceptional children might also be investigated more specifically.

Teachers most closely involved in teaching exceptional children least favored the integration of mildly exceptional children into regular classes compared with other respondents. Further research may elucidate the reasons for this relationship.

### Policy Making

The study suggested that the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association were the most influential groups of those surveyed, followed by the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents and the University Faculty of Education. The systems approach to policy making adopted in this study holds that influence levels of interest groups are important variables in the determination of public policy. More rigorous research into the influence levels of the above-named groups could provide useful information about the control of each group over policy making in Alberta.

The relationship between a group's influence over policy making and its degree of institutionalization was not clearly defined in the study. A more detailed examination of the structure of each interest group and the manner in which it operates could provide useful information on policy making generally in this province. The issue-specificity finding regarding the influence of groups should be tested as a means of evaluating the generalizability of this relationship.

## CONCLUSION

Throughout the province of Alberta, special educational services for exceptional children are provided in a manner that is both extensive and efficient. The needs of a large number of exceptional children in both rural and urban areas are satisfied in a multiplicity of ways.

There are government operated schools, school board operated schools, and private schools. Large numbers of special classes have been established in regular schools, and an expansion of resource rooms has already been achieved. Respondents in this study are basically satisfied with the system that they have.

Yet, in this study of attitudes towards the school placement of exceptional children possible improvements have become apparent, improvements suggested by members of educational interest groups who are meeting the needs of children on an everyday basis. One of the claims frequently made about government policy makers is that they are out of touch with they people they serve; it is suggested in this study that government policy makers cannot be out of touch with the people--only out of touch with some of the people. This is because policy changes are introduced only in response to demands made by groups within society.

It is frequently true that the loudest demands and the strongest requests attract the most attention from the policy makers. In this study, a number of interest groups, all influential in educational circles, have been studied and recommendations made on the basis of information their members have supplied. The groups are remarkably consistent in their requests; these should be considered by policy makers and implemented according to their potential in better providing for the exceptional children of Alberta.

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# APPENDIX A

# SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE
# FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## FORM 1

## PART I - PERSONAL INFORMATION

---

This information is required only to allow comparisons to be drawn between different groups of respondents. Please check (✓) the ONE RESPONSE to each item that gives the correct information about you. PLEASE ANSWER EACH ITEM.

---

Group 1-2 ____
Card 3 ____
Id 4-6 ____

1. Sex:
    1. Female ( )
    2. Male ( ) 7

2. Age last birthday:
    1. 20 years and under ( )
    2. 21 - 25 years ( )
    3. 26 - 30 years ( )
    4. 31 - 40 years ( )
    5. 41 - 50 years ( )
    6. 51 - 60 years ( )
    7. Over 60 years ( ) 8

3. Present Position:
    1. Classroom teacher ( )
    2. Special Education teacher ( )
    3. Counsellor/Psychologist ( )
    4. Department head (teaching/non-teaching) ( )
    5. Assistant Principal " ( )
    6. Principal " ( )
    7. Superintendent of Schools ( )
    8. University Professor ( )
    9. Regional Coordinator, Dept. of Ed. ( )
    10. Regional Consultant, Dept. of Ed. ( )
    11. Special Education Consultant, Dept. of Ed. ( )
    12. Other (Please specify: ( )

.....................................) 9-10

c.c.

4. Years in present position:
   1. Less than 1 year ( )
   2. 1 year - 2.9 years ( )
   3. 3 years - 4.9 years ( )
   4. 5 years - 9.9 years ( )
   5. 10 years - 19.9 years ( )
   6. 20 years or more ( ) 11

5. Educational Level Reached:
   1. One year of university or equivalent ( )
   2. Two years of university or equivalent ( )
   3. Three years of university or equivalent ( )
   4. B.Ed. degree or equivalent ( )
   5. Bachelor's degree plus postgraduate diploma ( )
   6. Master's degree ( )
   7. Doctoral degree ( )
   8. Other (Please specify: ......................) ( ) 12

6. Qualifications in Special Education:
   1. No formal study in this area ( )
   2. Some special education courses taken in B.Ed. degree ( )
   3. Minor sequence in special education in B.Ed. degree ( )
   4. Major sequence in special education taken in B.Ed. degree ( )
   5. Additional diploma or equivalent course in special education ( )
   6. Master's degree in special education ( )
   7. Doctoral degree in special education ( )
   8. Other (Please specify: ......................) ( ) 13

7. Years of teaching experience, including administrative positions:
   1. Less than 1 year ( )
   2. 1 year - 2.9 years ( )
   3. 3 years - 4.9 years ( )
   4. 5 years - 9.9 years ( )
   5. 10 years - 19.9 years ( )
   6. 20 years or more ( ) 14

c.c.

8. Teaching experience in Special Education:
   1. Less than 1 year ( )
   2. 1 year - 2.9 years ( )
   3. 3 years - 4.9 years ( )
   4. 5 years - 9.9 years ( )
   5. 10 years - 19.9 years ( )
   6. 20 years or more ( ) 15

9. Number of children in family:
   1. None ( )
   2. One ( )
   3. Two ( )
   4. Three or four ( )
   5. Five or six ( )
   6. More than six ( ) 16

10. Are any of your children or near relatives attending, or did they attend, a school or class for exceptional children?
   1. Yes ( )

   (Please show type and/or name of school/class:

   ..............................................................)

   2. No ( )
   3. Not sure ( ) 17

11. Have any of your children, or near relatives, ever been refused admission to a regular school program because they are exceptional in some way?
   1. Don't know ( )
   2. No ( )
   3. Yes ( ) 18

   (If yes, please give details: ..............................

   ..............................................................

   ..............................................................

   ..............................................................)

## SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## FORM II

### PART I - PERSONAL INFORMATION

---

This information is required only to allow comparisons to be drawn between different groups of respondents. Please check (✔) the ONE RESPONSE to each item that gives the correct information about you. PLEASE ANSWER EACH ITEM.

---

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Group | 1-2 | ____ |
| Card | 3 | ____ |
| Id | 4-6 | ____ |

1. Sex:
   1. Female ( )
   2. Male ( ) 7

2. Age last birthday:
   1. 20 years and under ( )
   2. 21 - 25 years ( )
   3. 26 - 30 years ( )
   4. 31 - 40 years ( )
   5. 41 - 50 years ( )
   6. 51 - 60 years ( )
   7. Over 60 years ( ) 8

3. Your occupation:
   1. Professional (doctor, lawyer, minister, teacher, etc.) ( )
   2. Executive (Manager of business, etc.) ( )
   3. Clerical (Office worker, typist, clerk, secretary) ( )
   4. Salesperson (Insurance, real estate, store, etc.) ( )
   5. Skilled worker (Tradesperson, craftworker, etc.) ( )
   6. Unskilled worker (Factory worker, janitor, etc.) ( )
   7. Home duties or no salaried occupation ( )
   8. Other (Please specify: ....................) ( ) 9

c.c.

4. Educational Level attained by you:
   1. Junior High School ( )
   2. Senior High School ( )
   3. Vocational, Nursing or Trade course ( )
   4. College or University degree ( )
   5. Postgraduate university degree ( )
   6. Other (Please specify: ......................) ( ) 10

5. Length of experience, if any, as a school trustee or member of a school Board (Not necessarily continuous):
   1. None ( )
   2. Less than 1 year ( )
   3. 1 year - 2.9 years ( )
   4. 3 years - 4.9 years ( )
   5. 5 years - 9.9 years ( )
   6. 10 years - 19.9 years ( )
   7. 20 years or more ( ) 11

6. Number of children in family:
   1. None ( )
   2. One ( )
   3. Two ( )
   4. Three or four ( )
   5. Five or six ( )
   6. More than six ( ) 16

7. Are any of your children or near relatives attending, or did they attend, a school or class for exceptional children?
   1. Yes ( )

   (Please show type and/or name of school/class:

   ....................................................)

   2. No ( )
   3. Not sure ( ) 17

c.c.

8. Have any of your children or near relatives ever been refused admission to a regular school program because they are exceptional in some way?

1. Don't know ( )
2. No ( )
3. Yes ( ) 18

(Please give details if yes: ..............................

.............................................................

.............................................................

.............................................................)

9. Your participation in educational organizations:

1. Am an active member of at least one organization group or association that is interested predominantly in educational matters. ( )
2. Am a member of an organization interested predominantly in educational matters, but rarely participate in its activities. ( )
3. Do not belong to any organizations of this type. ( ) 19

## SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## PART II

DIRECTIONS

On the following pages, a number of statements are given describing various types of exceptional children. Read them, and then decide which of the alternatives given below you consider to be the most appropriate type of school placement for each child, and indicate this on the answer sheet provided. Assume that each child is aged between 10 and 12 years.

Please check only ONE response for each child, but do not leave any child out. If you are uncertain about any one, check the response that most nearly resembles the placement you would choose.

The alternatives are:

A. The child should be fully integrated into a regular class appropriate to his age without any changes to present classroom procedures.

B. The child is not the responsibility of the school system at all; parents should have to make use of private schools or institutions for the exceptional, or keep the child at home.

C. The child should be placed in a regular class appropriate to his age, from where he would receive necessary supplementary instructional assistance from a resource teacher or special education teacher for no more than half of each day.

D. The child should be placed in a special class within a regular school, but would be integrated into a regular class for subjects such as art, music or physical education for no more than half of each day.

E. The child should be placed in a special class within a regular school and remain in that class for the whole of each day, mixing with children from regular classes in the playground and in certain whole school activities only.

F. The child should be placed in a separate special school designed solely to meet the needs of exceptional children, but one that is built on the same campus as a regular school. Both schools would share the same sporting facilities and some mixing of the children would take place on an incidental basis. The campus school may serve a number of surrounding regular schools.

G. The child should be placed in a separate special school especially designed to meet the needs of exceptional children, the school being located in a central position where it can serve the needs of a large part of the school district.

Your responses will remain completely confidential. Please respond to all items.

## SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## PART II - DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS

1. Johnny is an exceptionally bright child who is far ahead of the rest of his class in most subjects, especially reading and mathematics. When answering questions, he always takes a long time to explain the answer and uses words very few children his age would understand. However, he often disturbs other children when he has finished his work and they have not.

2. Elaine is severely mentally retarded. Her speech is very limited, and so far she has not learned to read or write. She has learned, though, to look after herself when she goes to the bathroom. She doesn't seem to understand school rules and will often leave the playground if left unattended.

3. Chuck can get about only in a wheelchair; someone must move it for him at all times because he is unable to control any of his limbs. He cannot write nor participate in school activities in the usual way, hence expensive equipment and additional staff are needed; movement into and around the school buildings is a great problem.

4. Allan does not seem to catch onto things as quickly as most; he needs to have things explained over and over again; eventually, though, he appears to learn most things the other children do even though it has taken much longer. He talks a lot in class.

5. Edward has already spent three years of his life in institutions for delinquent children, mainly for stealing and being uncontrollable. He frequently plays truant from school and is not at all interested in learning anything when he is present. He constantly disrupts lessons and prevents other children from learning.

6. When Alice wears her hearing aid, she can hear most of what is being said, especially if the person speaking is facing her so that she can lipread as well. Her progress at school, particularly in reading, has been affected by the slower rate at which she communicates with others.

7. Laura's speech is laboriously slow, tortured, jerky and indistinct; her voice is monotonous in pitch and she cannot control its intensity.

8. Despite constant tuition by the class teacher, Roy has a reading age two and a half years below his real age. He has been given general ability tests and seems to be of above average ability, but all his school work is suffering because of his poor reading ability.

9. Jane is totally deaf, and has been since birth. She attended a preschool class for two years where she learned to use handsigns as a means of communication; teaching her to speak is a very difficult task.

10. Greg suffers from a heart problem and tires easily and needs frequent opportunities to rest; excessive stimulation or excitement must also be avoided.

11. Joan has recently learned to read at a simple level, but is unable to cope with subjects that require any great amount of concentration. She constantly gets up from her seat and moves noisily around the room, disturbing other children while they are working; this is very annoying to the teacher also.

12. Hugh eventually mutilates everything that gets into his hands; his books are marked and torn, his desk scratched and scarred, and he has broken several windows by throwing stones. Several times he has injured other children, and on one occasion threw a baseball bat at the teacher.

13. Helen is blind, and has to use braille to read anything; this is very expensive and time-consuming, and she is not very good at it yet; she is a happy girl who tries very hard to overcome her handicap.

14. Patrick is an epileptic and has experienced several fits in class. He is on medication but this sometimes makes him drowsy. Otherwise his progress at school is only slightly affected by his illness.

15. Ian has very limited eyesight. He wears heavy glasses but still has great difficulty in reading printed material and seeing the chalkboard. He is clumsy physically and not very good at sports.

16. Frank is what might be termed mildly handicapped. He is slower and less capable at his work than the other children and not very good at communicating, but does not suffer from any visible handicaps; emotionally he is withdrawn and does not get along very well with his peers.

17. Eddie is severely handicapped in a number of ways. He is almost completely deaf and has an intelligence equal to a normal child less than half his age; his language skills are very poor, and he is a behavior problem in the class. Someone must take him regularly to the washroom.

18. Although of average ability, Fred has fallen a considerable distance behind in his school work following long periods of absence due to asthma. In most of his work he is at least twelve months behind his peers; he rarely attends school for a week without missing at least one day.

19. Faye is almost too good to be true; she is exceptionally attractive, cheerful and cooperative; she completes work set in less than half the time of the rest of the class, and always correctly too. Her knowledge of music and her ability at playing several musical instruments are outstanding.

20. Tom is unable to walk, and has been confined to a wheelchair; he manages this very well and needs little help, except of course where there are a lot of stairs; his mathematics is weak but reading skills are about average for his age.

# SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## PART II - ANSWER SHEET

DIRECTIONS

Please indicate your response to each of the descriptive statements given in the School Placement Schedule by circling the appropriate letter (A, B, . . G) in the columns below.

Please ensure that you give only ONE response for each statement, and that you do not leave any statement out.

Card 1

| | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Statement No. | In regular class, no supplementary services. | Not the responsibility of the school system. | In regular class, supplementary services up to half days. | In special class, integrated for subjects such as art, music up to half days. | In spec. class for whole day but located in regular school. | In spec. school but on same campus as a regular school. | In. spec. school in separate location within district. | c.c. |
| 1 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 21 |
| 2 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 22 |
| 3 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 23 |
| 4 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 24 |
| 5 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 25 |
| 6 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 26 |
| 7 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 27 |
| 8 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 28 |
| 9 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 29 |
| 10 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 30 |
| 11 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 31 |
| 12 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 32 |
| 13 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 33 |
| 14 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 34 |
| 15 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 35 |
| 16 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 36 |
| 17 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 37 |
| 18 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 38 |
| 19 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 39 |
| 20 | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | 40 |

Have you any suggestions to make generally about the school placement of exceptional children? If so, please do so below.

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## SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## PART III

DIRECTIONS

Please indicate, by circling the appropriate response, whether you think each of the following statements is TRUE or FALSE. If you are not sure, DO NOT GUESS, but check the response headed "Don't Know." Do not look up any answers, just use your present knowledge to answer each question as best you can.

Please do not leave any spaces; answer all questions.

| | True | False | Don't Know | c.c. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. In Alberta, all children aged between 6 and 16, including exceptional children, must attend school regularly. | T | F | D.K. | 41 |
| 2. The WISC and Stanford-Binet Tests are individual tests for measuring general ability levels of children. | T | F | D.K. | 42 |
| 3. From Edmonton, the closest residential school for the blind is in Ontario. | T | F | D.K. | 43 |
| 4. In Alberta, school boards have the power to exclude from school mentally deficient children. | T | F | D.K. | 44 |
| 5. One way in which severely retarded and mildly retarded groups differ is that the severely mentally retarded tend to be from the lower socio-economic class. | T | F | D.K. | 45 |
| 6. The Cascade Model is a plan for providing an effective program of facilities for exceptional children in as integrated setting as possible. | T | F | D.K. | 46 |
| 7. Children usually resent being placed in separate special classes and try to hide such placement from their friends. | T | F | D.K. | 47 |
| 8. The mainstreaming movement for the placement of exceptional children in regular classes wherever possible is common in the United States but is not really apparent in other parts of the world. | T | F | D.K. | 48 |
| 9. It is less costly to provide for exceptional children in integrated settings than in segregated classes or schools. | T | F | D.K. | 49 |
| 10. When they are placed in regular classes, exceptional children are just as popular with their classmates as average children. | T | F | D.K. | 50 |

| | | 1<br>True | 2<br>False | 3<br>Don't Know | c.c. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. | Special purpose schools or classes catering to only one type of exceptional child in each are the most common form of special education placement available at present in Alberta. | T | F | D.K. | 51 |
| 12. | Mandatory government legislation making the provision of special education facilities compulsory for all mentally retarded children is operative in Alberta. | T | F | D.K. | 52 |
| 13. | The "Zero-Reject" concept developed by Lilly makes the assumption that when a child fails to learn it is the fault of the education system and not the child. | T | F | D.K. | 53 |
| 14. | Mainstreaming means placing all exceptional children in regular classes regardless of the severity or type of exceptionality. | T | F | D.K. | 54 |
| 15. | If a child attends a resource room type of class, he probably attends a regular classroom as well. | T | F | D.K. | 55 |
| 16. | Labelling a child as having a specific exceptionality alters a teachers' expectancy of progress for that child. | T | F | D.K. | 56 |
| 17. | Attitudes towards any specific exceptionality are the same in all cultures throughout the world. | T | F | D.K. | 57 |
| 18. | Researchers have proved conclusively that self-contained class placement is detrimental to the mentally retarded child. | T | F | D.K. | 58 |
| 19. | The percentage of children in the total population who could be regarded as exceptional and in need of special education is usually accepted as being about 18-20 per cent. | T | F | D.K. | 59 |
| 20. | An educational program providing for the needs of all exceptional children would include those classed as "gifted" as well as those regarded as handicapped. | T | F | D.K. | 60 |

21. It may be that you have had considerable experience in dealing with the needs of exceptional children. If so, you are invited to set out below what you have learned from this experience about the problems that the exceptional child faces at school.

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# SCHOOL PLACEMENT SCHEDULE FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

## PART IV

DIRECTIONS

In any field of concern to the community, a number of groups are in existence, or develop especially, each of which tries to persuade the government to implement that group's particular policies or demands as part of government policy in that area.

Naturally, the government cannot agree to all requests and it is probably true to say that some groups are more influential than others in being able to affect government decisions.

a) Quite a number of groups probably have some influence on government policy in the field of education, and some of these are listed below. You are asked to indicate how much influence you feel each of these groups has on the making of government policy in education.

Please use the scale below.

1. Little or no influence
2. Some influence
3. Quite a bit of influence
4. A great deal of influence
5. A very great deal of influence

Please place a number after EACH of the groups listed. Do not leave any spaces.

| | | c.c. |
|---|---|---|
| GROUPS | | |
| Alberta Teachers Association (ATA) | ____ | 61 |
| Alberta School Trustees Association (ASTA) | ____ | 62 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents (CASS) | ____ | 63 |
| University Faculties of Education | ____ | 64 |
| Parent Organizations | ____ | 65 |
| Community Organizations | ____ | 66 |
| Provincial Department of Education | ____ | 67 |
| Private Schools | ____ | 68 |
| | | 69 |
| | | 70 |

2) Now consider that the government of Alberta was developing a new policy at the provincial level with regard to the school placement of exceptional children. How much influence do you feel each of the groups shown below would have on the making of government policy on this particular topic?

Please use the same scale as mentioned above.

1. Little or no influence
2. Some influence
3. Quite a bit of influence
4. A great deal of influence
5. A very great deal of influence

| GROUPS | | c.c. |
|---|---|---|
| Alberta Teachers Association | _____ | 71 |
| Alberta School Trustees Association | _____ | 72 |
| Conference of Alberta School Superintendents | _____ | 73 |
| Faculties of Education in provincial universities | _____ | 74 |
| Organizations of parents of exceptional children | _____ | 75 |
| Other parent organizations or groups | _____ | 76 |
| Community groups | _____ | 77 |
| Private schools for the handicapped | _____ | 78 |
| Provincial Department of Education | _____ | 79 |

3) Have you any comments you would like to make about the influence of interest groups on educational policy making in Alberta? If so, please do so below.

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# APPENDIX B

## ORGANIZATION/AGENCY INFORMATION SHEET

## STUDY INTO THE SCHOOL PLACEMENT OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN IN ALBERTA

## ORGANIZATION/AGENCY INFORMATION SHEET

1. Name of Agency/Organization: ....................................................

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2. Number of Members (1977): ..........................................................

3. Qualifications, if any, for membership: ..........................................

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4. Membership fee, if any: ..............................................................

5. When was Organization founded? ....................................................

6. Reason for formation of Organization: ............................................

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7. Total operating budget of the Organization in 1977 (approximate): ........

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8. Total number of paid, full-time staff. (Treat part-time staff as full-time equivalents: ....................................................

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9. To what extent is the day-to-day control of the Organization in the hands of professional staff employed on a full-time basis?

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10. What is the administrative structure of the Organization? (A diagram may be the best means of showing this.)

11. How often does the membership meet to discuss policy matters?

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12. Was the Organization set up to achieve one fairly specific policy or does it have a widely dispersed set of policies?

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13. What are the main policies of your Organization? A copy of these would be very helpful; otherwise, a brief summary of the main policies would be sufficient.

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Ques. #13 cont'd.

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14. Has your Organization any clearly defined policies in the area of special education, and if so, what are they? (Same comment as above applies.)

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15. Has your Organization considered the question of the form of school placement that is most desirable for exceptional children? If so, please give details of any decisions made or policies adopted.

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16. With what other organizations, if any, is your organization affiliated in Alberta? ..........................................................

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17. With what other organizations, if any, does your Organization cooperate in the attainment of similar policies?

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18. Please check (✓) the most appropriate response (ONE RESPONSE ONLY PLEASE!).

Would you say that in the majority of cases, your group's dealings with the government:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (i) | are of a confrontation type, where the group is publicly criticizing the government because of its lack of implementation of the organization's policies; | ( ) |
| (ii) | are sometimes of the confrontation type, but often involve discussions with government officials over organization policies on specific matters; | ( ) |
| (iii) | are carried out through regular contact with government officials in areas of common concern; | ( ) |
| (iv) | are carried out mainly through organizational representation on advisory boards working directly with the government. | ( ) |

19. Please indicate below, by circling the most appropriate response, the frequency that your organization would make use of each of the following means of obtaining publicity; please respond to EACH of the forms given:

| | | Regularly | Quite Often | Occasionally | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a) | Publicity-oriented protests | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| b) | Presentation of briefs to public bodies | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| c) | Public relations releases | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| d) | General press releases | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| e) | Image-building advertising | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

# APPENDIX C

## LETTERS SEEKING PARTICIPATION OF RESPONDENTS IN STUDY

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

Members, Alberta Teachers' Association

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is an important part of the research I am conducting as part of my doctoral studies at The University of Alberta. I have been granted approval by the Executive Secretary of the Alberta Teachers' Association to seek your assistance in this regard, and would be most grateful for your participation.

In my work I am concerned with the forms of school placement commonly used to meet the needs of exceptional children, these being defined as children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be met effectively. I am endeavouring to ascertain the forms of school placement considered by involved groups to be the most appropriate for exceptional children in Alberta. Members of the A.T.A. represent one of the major groups included in the study.

Because the attitudes of certain groups can be influential in determining government policy, this study is also concerned with discovering how much knowledge respondents have in the area of special education, and how influential they perceive relevant groups to be in determining government policy in education.

Please follow closely the directions listed for each section. When you have completed all parts, please place the questionnaire in the stamped envelope provided and post it to me, if at all possible within ONE WEEK of receiving it, so that the analysis of results can proceed quickly.

I realize that demands of this type are frequently placed upon you, but hope that you will consider the topic to be of value to school administrators, teachers, and children, and therefore worthy of your support and involvement. Complete anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely,

Robert F. Barron.

RB/eas

Encl.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

School Trustees

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is an important part of the research I am conducting as part of my doctoral studies at The University of Alberta. I am seeking your assistance in this regard, and would be most grateful for your participation.

In my work I am concerned with the forms of school placement commonly used to meet the needs of exceptional children, these being defined as children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be met effectively. I am endeavouring to ascertain the forms of school placement considered by involved groups to be the most appropriate for exceptional children in Alberta. School Trustees represent one of the major groups included in the study.

Because the attitudes of certain groups can be influential in determining government policy, this study is also concerned with discovering how much knowledge respondents have in the area of special education, and how influential they perceive relevant groups to be in determining government policy in education.

Please follow closely the directions listed for each section. When you have completed all parts, please place the questionnaire in the stamped envelope provided and, if at all possible within ONE WEEK of receiving it, post it to me so that the analysis of results can proceed quickly.

I realize that demands of this type are frequently placed upon you, but hope that you will consider the topic to be of value to school administrators, teachers, and children, and therefore worthy of your support and involvement. Complete anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely,

Robert F. Barron

Robert F. Barron.

RFB/eas

Encls.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

School Superintendents

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is an important part of the research I am conducting as part of my doctoral studies at The University of Alberta. I am seeking your assistance in this regard, and would be most grateful for your participation.

In my work I am concerned with the forms of school placement commonly used to meet the needs of exceptional children, these being defined as children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be met effectively. I am endeavouring to ascertain the forms of school placement considered by involved groups to be the most appropriate for exceptional children in Alberta. Superintendents of Schools represent one of the major groups included in the study.

Because the attitudes of certain groups can be influential in determining government policy, this study is also concerned with discovering how much knowledge respondents have in the area of special education, and how influential they perceive relevant groups to be in determining government policy in education.

Please follow closely the directions listed for each section. When you have completed all parts, please place the questionnaire in the stamped envelope provided and post it to me, if at all possible within ONE WEEK of receiving it, so that the analysis of results can proceed quickly.

I realize that demands of this type are frequently placed upon you, but hope that you will consider the topic to be of value to school administrators, teachers, and children, and therefore worthy of your support and involvement. Complete anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely,

Robert F. Barron.

RFB/eas

Encls.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

Professors of Educational Administration,
Professors of Elementary Education,
Professors of Educational Psychology.

Dear Colleague:

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is an important part of the research I am conducting as part of my doctoral studies at The University of Alberta. I am seeking your assistance in this regard, and would be most grateful for your participation.

In my work I am concerned with the forms of school placement commonly used to meet the needs of exceptional children, these being defined as children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be met effectively. I am endeavouring to ascertain the forms of school placement considered by involved groups to be the most appropriate for exceptional children in Alberta. University professors represent one of the major groups included in the study.

Because the attitudes of certain groups can be influential in determining government policy, this study is also concerned with discovering how much knowledge respondents have in the area of special education, and how influential they perceive relevant groups to be in determining government policy in education.

Please follow closely the directions listed for each section. When you have completed all parts, please place the questionnaire in the envelope provided and return it to me through the internal mail system, if at all possible within ONE WEEK of receiving it, so that the analysis of results may proceed quickly.

I realize the demands of this type are frequently placed upon you, but hope that you will consider the topic to be of value to school administrators, teachers, and children, and therefore worthy of your support and involvement. Complete anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely,

Robert F. Barron.

RFB/eas

Encls.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

Dear Parent or Association Member:

Enclosed is a questionnaire which is an important part of the research I am conducting as part of my doctoral studies at The University of Alberta. In my work, I am concerned with the forms of school placement commonly used to meet the needs of exceptional children, these being defined as children who differ to such an extent from what might be regarded as normal that they are in need of special programs in order for their educational needs to be effectively met. I am endeavouring to ascertain the forms of school placement considered by involved groups to be the most appropriate for exceptional children in Alberta.

Because the attitudes of certain groups can be influential in determining governmental policy, this study is also concerned with discovering how much knowledge respondents have in the area of special education, and how influential they perceive relevant groups to be in determining government policy in education.

You have been included in the sample for this study either because you have a child enrolled in some form of special education class or school, or because you are a member of a particular group that is considered to hold a special interest in education. I have contacted the Chairperson or President of that group, who has given permission for me to approach group members seeking their cooperation. I am therefore requesting that you participate in the survey by completing the enclosed questionnaire.

Please follow closely the directions listed for each section. When you have completed all parts, please place the questionnaire in the enclosed stamped envelope and post it to me, if at all possible within ONE WEEK of receiving it, so that the analysis of results can proceed quickly. I hope that you will appreciate that the success of this project depends heavily upon your cooperation and participation, and that you will consider the topic to be of value to all children regardless of the type of school they attend. Complete anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely,

Robert F. Barron.

RFB/eas

Encl.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

**Department of Educational Administration**
*EDMONTON, ALBERTA, CANADA T6G 2G5 TELEPHONE 432-5241*

29th November, 1977

Dear School Trustee:

Some time ago, I forwarded to you a questionnaire dealing with the school placement of exceptional children asking that you might be good enough to complete this and so assist me in my doctoral research. I am very grateful to all those who did spend their valuable time completing this questionnaire. Please accept my thanks.

If you have not yet done so, it would help me very much if you would complete same and forward it to me, if at all possible, by Tuesday, December 6th.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Yours truly,

Robert F. Barron

Robert F. Barron

RFB/eas